

THE MAGAZINE THAT FEEDS MINDS

HOW IT WORKS

INSIDE



BIG CATS
THE SECRET LIVES OF
THESE NATURAL-BORN
KILLERS REVEALED

SCIENCE ENVIRONMENT TECHNOLOGY TRANSPORT HISTORY SPACE

SUPERSMART

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THE AMAZING VEHICLES
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995
FACTS AND
ANSWERS
INSIDE

+ LEARN ABOUT

- BULLDOZERS
- SKIN GRAFTS
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- JET SURFBOARDS
- STAR FORTS
- PLANT CELLS
- SPRINKLERS
- GAS WARFARE

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ISSUE 36

£3.99



36

A man with dark hair and a slight smile, wearing an orange short-sleeved button-down shirt, stands against a cosmic background of stars and nebulae. The text "A MILLION, BILLION, TRILLION REASONS TO WATCH" is overlaid on the right side of the image.

A MILLION, BILLION, TRILLION
REASONS TO WATCH

SCIENCE MONTH FEATURING
**THE WONDERS
OF THE UNIVERSE**
ALL THIS MONTH
SKY 532 | VIRGIN 208/HD 209

The Eden HD logo features the word "eden" in a lowercase, rounded font, followed by "HD" in a bold, uppercase font. A vibrant rainbow arc curves around the text from the bottom left to the top right. The background of the logo consists of several overlapping, semi-transparent circles.

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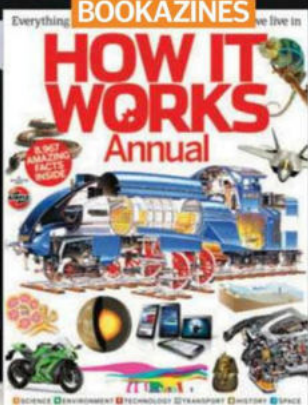
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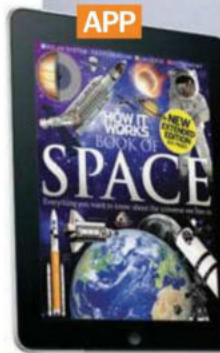
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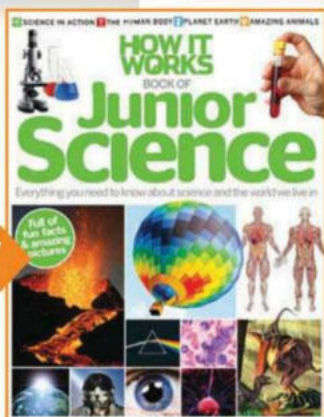
APP



THE WORLD OF HOW IT WORKS

NOW AVAILABLE!

This book is perfect for young science fans looking for a fun and bright way to learn about the world



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FEED YOUR MIND!

It's a fact. We no longer simply 'watch' TV. While once we were content to sit in front of the box, viewing the programming timetable the broadcaster scheduled, today we want – no, demand – more. And the power is now in our hands... and faces and voices. I don't mean the power that holding the remote once granted over other people in the room, and I don't just mean the power to access, pause and rewind any movie you want to watch at will. Today we have the freedom to put down the remote and use things like gesture control and speech recognition to tell the TV what we want.

Not only that, but all major manufacturers now offer models with social network integration and internet connectivity as standard, so you can upload and share videos and photos, Skype friends and family, and much more besides. This all makes your TV a functional and convenient hub for communicating with the world. Televisions have got supersmart, so now's the time to find out how they work. Check them out on page 12.

Also this issue, you can discover the amazing technology behind NASA's Mars Science Laboratory mission, which is winging its way to the Red Planet as we speak. When it lands in August, the hunt for evidence of life on Mars will begin anew. One exciting mission to watch.

Enjoy the issue!

Helen

Helen Laidlaw
Editor

Meet the team...



Dave

Ed in Chief
Having just launched *All About Space* magazine I'm generally immersing myself in all things cosmic, and the feature on the latest intrepid mission to Mars is a great read.



Ben

Features Editor
Several rovers have been sent to Mars, but I'm still fascinated by the technologies behind these missions. It's amazing to think that we can control robots on other planets.



Robert

Features Editor
This issue I relived the brutal Battle of Agincourt, which was romantic and horrific in equal measure. If there's a single conflict that vividly paints the grim realities of war, then this is it.



Adam

Senior Sub Editor
From the incredibly resilient vehicles able to explore Earth's ocean depths to the weird creatures and geology you can find there, our submersible feature this month had me hooked.

THE SECTIONS

The huge amount of info in each issue of *How It Works* is organised into these sections

ENVIRONMENT

The splendour of the natural world explained

TRANSPORT

Be it road, rail, air or sea, you'll find out about it in Transport



HISTORY

Your questions about how things worked in the past answered

SCIENCE

Explaining the applications of science in the contemporary world around us

SPACE

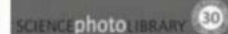
From exploration of our Solar System to deep-space adventures

TECHNOLOGY

The wonders of modern gadgetry and engineering explained in depth

WITH THANKS TO...

How It Works would like to thank the following organisations for their help



CONTENTS

The magazine that feeds minds!

"Technology that reaches into the future and pulls back a slice of what's to come"

MEET THE EXPERTS

Find out more about the experts in this month's edition of How It Works...

Shanna Freeman Massive underwater mountains



Shanna delves deep into the subject of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge and explains the amazing geological processes that form the planet's largest mountain range, which happens to be in the Atlantic.

Nigel Watson World's fastest RC car



Among other things, Nigel lifts the lid on the fastest remote-control car ever to be made, revealing how it can reach whopping speeds of 100mph plus. Whatever you may think of RC vehicles, this is no toy.

Luis Villazon The big cats



Wildman zoologist Luis reveals seven deadly predators from the animal kingdom. Find out how the big cats stalk prey, how they hunt solo and in packs, and what they do all day in this comprehensive feature.

Aneel Bhangu Seeing our thoughts



This issue surgeon Aneel explains how it's possible to 'see' what your brain is thinking in the various types of imaging technologies used in modern medicine. What can we glean from these pictures?

Tom Harris The science of fear



It may sound funny to learn that some people in this world are afraid of beards, or of sitting down, but our bodies are wired to react to fear for a reason: to stay alive. Tom reveals how we deal with this lifesaving emotion.

12 COVER FEATURE



Supersmart TVs explained

Take a look inside some of the cleverest, most functional and desirable technologies leading the smart TV revolution in this issue's big Technology feature

TECHNOLOGY

12 Supersmart TVs
It's brains before brawn in our look inside the televisions taking home entertainment to a whole new level

16 100mph RC car
18 Water turbines
20 Exocet missiles
21 Asthma inhalers
21 Underfloor heating
21 Chip authentication security
22 Samsung Galaxy S III
24 Starting blocks
24 Fire sprinkler systems

26 Vacuum-cleaning tech
Explore what goes on inside a bagless vacuum cleaner

TRANSPORT

28 Extreme submarines
What makes it possible for today's submersibles to explore the ocean's deepest depths over 10km down?

32 Road sweepers
32 Tyre jacks
34 Engine oil
34 Dump valves
34 Jet surfboards
35 Jetman's wing

36 Bulldozers
How do these monsters of the construction site work? Take a look under the hood...

SCIENCE

38 Science of fear
Discover how the human body reacts to danger and why we couldn't survive without fear

42 Cholesterol
42 Tattoo removal
42 Vulcanising rubber
44 Skin grafts
44 Acoustic levitation

45 States of matter

46 Can we see thoughts?
What does brain scan imaging technology reveal about our minds?

SPACE

48 Mission to Mars
Discover how NASA will get to the Red Planet and deliver an entire science laboratory that will hopefully reveal whether microbial life is, or has ever been, present on Mars

57 Meteor showers

58 Moon formation
Learn about the violent circumstances surrounding the birth of Earth's only natural satellite

ENVIRONMENT

60 Big cats
The secret lives of the purr-fect predators are unveiled in our really wild Environment feature

64 How spiders spin webs
66 Plant cells
68 Venus flytraps
68 The jellyfish life cycle

70 Marine mountains
The Mid-Atlantic Ridge is part of the longest mountain range on the planet. See how it was formed

HISTORY

72 Da Vinci's flying machine
We study the aviation designs of this prolific inventor and assess if his ornithopter could have flown

74 Riding spurs
74 Gas warfare
74 Treadwheel cranes
75 Star forts

76 The Battle of Agincourt
Get a step-by-step account of one of the most famous battles of all time

28 Extreme submarines

How do these vehicles embark on the most dangerous deep-sea voyages?

38 Science of fear

Why do we get scared and what does it do to our bodies?

What powers the Samsung Galaxy S III smartphone?

Go to page 22 to find out!

16

100mph RC car

How a miniature vehicle can achieve blistering speeds



REGULARS

06 Global eye

Get the latest news and the greatest stories from the fields of science, technology, astronomy and beyond

82 Brain dump: Q&A with top experts

A host of the finest experts, curators and professors from all over the world answer your most burning questions

88 The knowledge: gear and gadgets

Advice on the articles of desire you should be spending your money on in our honest reviews

90 Group test

We trial a trio of super-powerful smartphones to find out who will come out on top. Discover which is the Android champ on page 90

94 How to...

Improve your practical skills with our special How to... sections loaded with tips on how to survive in today's world of technology and gadgetry

95 Test your knowledge

Enter our quiz based on the contents of this month's mag and you could win a prize!

96 Letters

Get in touch and have your say on any subject. Tell us what you've learned this month, get something off your chest or simply regale us with your scientific wonderings

60 The big cats

They're fast, they're powerful and they pack one heck of a punch. Discover how these fearsome cats hunt and survive



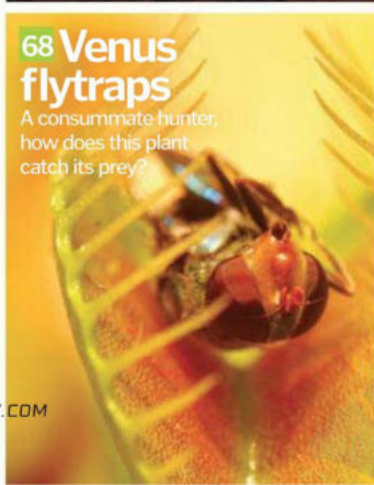
48 Mission to Mars

As the Mars Science Laboratory nears the Red Planet, find out how we got there and what experiments will take place on the surface



68 Venus flytraps

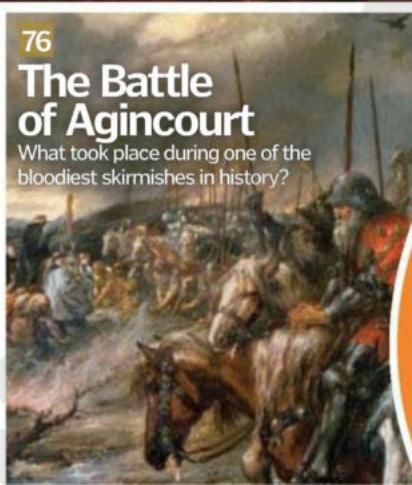
A consummate hunter, how does this plant catch its prey?



76

The Battle of Agincourt

What took place during one of the bloodiest skirmishes in history?



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How It Works | 005

Showcasing the incredible world we live in...

How lightning sparked Colorado's inferno

A colossal wildfire has laid waste to a nature reserve in Colorado, so far consuming over 60,000 acres of woodland and causing an estimated \$12.6m (£8m) damage



In what is predicted to be the largest wildfire Colorado has ever seen, over 24,280 hectares (60,000 acres) of protected forest and at least 189 residential homes have now been burnt to the ground. Started by a lightning strike on 9 June and driven by high winds and soaring temperatures, at the time of writing, firefighters were still battling to quell the spreading blaze, which has seen mass evacuation of the region, road closures and utility services brought to their knees.

Wildfires begin naturally from four major causes: lightning strikes, volcanic eruptions, sparks from rockfalls and, rarely, spontaneous combustion. Once instigated, the fires then take the form of one of four main fire types, dependent on burn height and fuel consumption. Ground fires feed off subterranean roots and organic matter, surface fires off low-level vegetation such as grasses, ladder fires climb upwards consuming small trees, while crown fires burn and spread through forest canopies. It is typical for wildfires to progress between these types, driven largely by environmental factors such as wind and temperature.

Speaking on the efforts to counteract the wildfires, Brett Haberstick of the federal incident management team said: "The interior is still very hot. This isn't a single battle; this is a campaign. Mother Nature [has been] pretty tough on us."

At the time of writing, the wildfires were still spreading through the High Park area in central Colorado, with no sign of abating any time soon; as such, officials are still unwilling to allow residents to return to their properties. Speaking on the evacuation, John Schulz, spokesperson for the Larimer County Sheriff's Office, said authorities couldn't risk allowing people to return in case the fire turns back, as it is currently only 55 per cent contained. Most worrying of all, however, was a warning from the region's weather service, which stated: "Record or near-record heat combined with an extremely dry air mass and breezy conditions will create a very high fire danger. Conditions will be favourable for rapid growth of existing wildfire and new fire starts." The firefighting operation continues.

© Karl Green

Thousands of acres of forest have been consumed by the fire, along with nearly 200 homes



© Getty Images

"The interior is still very hot. This isn't a single battle; this is a campaign. Mother Nature [has been] pretty tough on us"

On Mars the contestants would be exposed to a huge amount of ionising radiation, which the show says it will counteract with large radiation shields



© NASA

TV show aims to touch down on Mars by 2023

A new venture will offer members of the public a chance to live on the Red Planet



In what is being dubbed as both 'the biggest hoax of all time' and also 'a brave attempt to challenge the boundaries of space travel', a new reality TV show led by Dutch entrepreneur Bas Lansdorp intends to establish the first colony on Mars in 2023.

The project, named Mars One, intends to generate \$6 billion (£3.8 billion), put out an open call for applicants, train a select few of them over a seven-year period and then fire them off to the Red Planet. Upon arriving, they will meet a Mars One rover – which will have been sent during the training programme to ascertain the best place to establish a settlement – and proceed to set up the first permanent

dwelling. Importantly, each stage of the project will be recorded live and any footage will be transmitted back to Earth for the creation of a reality TV show.

Speaking on the critical commentary Lansdorp said: "If you look at the team involved in Mars One, none of us would do this as a hoax. If a Mars mission was to happen we'd want to be part of it and if we did a scam now no one would ever include us in the real thing."

Despite a number of scientists and academics becoming ambassadors for the project, commentators are stating that Mars One grossly underestimates the levels of technology and finance required for such an ambitious venture.

Amazing new space launch!

All About Space is the brand-new magazine taking readers on a wondrous journey through the cosmos

Imagine Publishing has bolstered its knowledge portfolio with a fantastic new magazine dedicated to explaining the wonders of the universe. All About Space delivers the most authoritative and cutting-edge facts, opinion and news from the field, with the help of an expert panel of space journalists and industry professionals. From the current search for a new Earth to the next-gen space planes set to take humans to the farthest reaches of the galaxy, All About Space has it all.

Speaking on the launch, Editor-In-Chief Dave Harfield said: "All About Space is the most exciting magazine launch since How It Works. Space is a mindblowing topic and we're confident anyone fascinated by the cosmos will find All About Space the most amazing space magazine in this world or, indeed, any other."

All About Space is available now to download at www.greatdigitalmags.com, or you can buy the magazine online at the Imagine eShop or from all good supermarkets. For an exclusive preview of issue one visit www.spaceanswers.com today.



WHAT ON EARTH IS IT?

A close-up look at the world!



Each month we post some weird images on the HIW website. Find out what they are now...

1. What is it?



Your best answers:

'It's an alien's face!' - Alex Woolley

'The head of a very strange insect' - Ashwin Kumaar

A: Green bush-cricket



This weird-looking creature is a green bush-cricket, which is a long-horned katydid of the tettigoniidae family. There are over 6,400 recorded species of bush-cricket on Earth, ranging from North America, through Europe and down to the tropics. The majority of bush-crickets consume mainly leaves, flowers and bark, however some are exclusively predatory, feeding instead on other insects and snails.

2. What is it?



Your best answers:

'Some sort of jelly monster?' - Ben Swindell

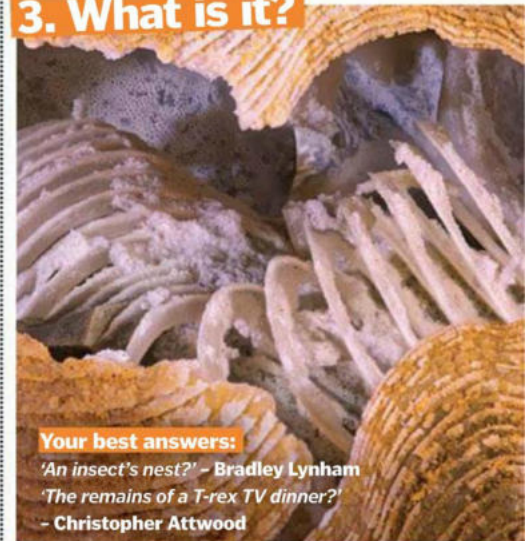
'Looks like a blue-ringed octopus, but maybe it's a cuttlefish?' - Quinnlan Hatchett

A: Reef cuttlefish



This is a broadclub cuttlefish (*sepia latimanus*), which is commonly referred to as a reef cuttlefish due to it being the most common to be found in coral reefs. The broadclub is the second-biggest species of cuttlefish in the world, often growing to 0.5 metres (1.6 feet) long and weighing in excess of ten kilograms (22 pounds). It feeds primarily on shrimp, prawns and other small marine creatures.

3. What is it?

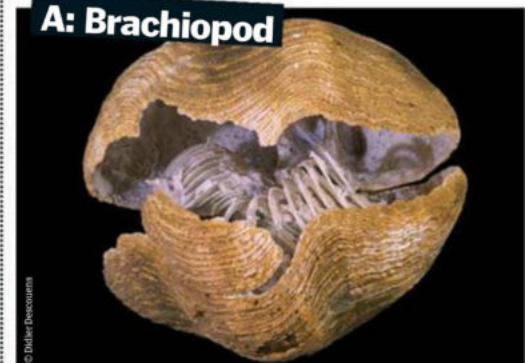


Your best answers:

'An insect's nest?' - Bradley Lynham

'The remains of a T-rex TV dinner?' - Christopher Attwood

A: Brachiopod



This is a fossilised Early Jurassic period brachiopod with its lophophore skeleton visible within. The lophophore is a characteristic feeding organ of brachiopods that helps them collect micro-plankton and other tiny organisms; it consists of a series of ringed, hair-like tentacles that line its mouth.



To get involved, visit WWW.HOWITWORKSDAILY.COM to make your guess now!

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THIS DAY IN HISTORY 12 JULY: How It Works issue 36 goes on sale, but what else

927 Æthelstan, King of England, secures a pledge from King Constantine of Scotland that he will not ally with the Vikings.

1191 During the third crusade, Sultan of Syria Saladin's garrison at Acre surrenders to Philip Augustus, ending a two-year siege (right).



1543 King Henry VIII marries his sixth and final wife, Catherine Parr, at Hampton Court Palace.

1860 The Medal of Honor is authorised by the US Congress.



1920 The Soviet-Lithuanian Peace Treaty is signed.

1943 The Battle of Prokhorovka takes place between German and Soviet forces, the largest-ever tank engagement.



Rise of US insect spy drones causes a buzz

The US military is to introduce minuscule robotic spies this year, with lethal mini-drones expected by 2015

The US military has confirmed that it is to adopt robotic insect-sized spies 'as tiny as bumblebees' that can fly into enemy buildings and record images and audio this year. In addition, the US Air Force has confirmed that it is currently working on 'lethal mini-drones' that would begin to be rolled out in 2015, each capable of attacking insurgents and targets.

Interestingly, unlike today's large-scale UAV drones that have been used in the recent Iraq and Afghanistan conflicts, these new insect-sized drones will heavily imitate nature through

nanobiomimicry, apeing the eye, ear, wing and body structures of bats, birds and beetles among other creatures.

Speaking on the reasons to imitate nature in these drones, Professor Richard Bomphrey of Oxford University said: "Nature has solved the problem of how to design miniature flying machines. By learning those lessons, it [will be] possible to aerodynamically engineer a new breed of surveillance vehicles that, because they are as small as insects and also fly like them, completely blend in to their surroundings."



Although this is just a concept, these new insect-sized drones will heavily imitate nature through nanobiomimicry

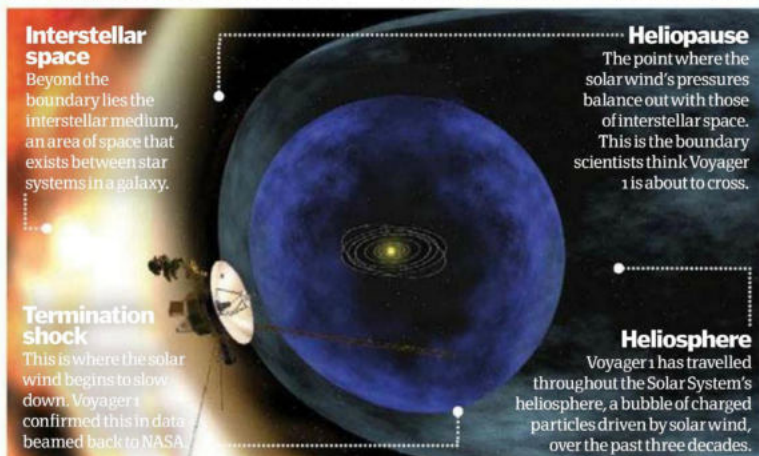
Voyager 1 to exit Solar System

After 35 years of continuous spaceflight, the Voyager 1 probe is close to entering interstellar space, according to NASA

NASA's Voyager 1 spacecraft, which launched on 5 September 1977, is about to leave our Solar System. The probe is currently experiencing a sharp rise in the number of high-energy particles hitting it from distant exploded stars, a tell-tale sign it is on the boundary of interstellar space. Speaking on the report, Ed Stone, a Voyager project scientist at the California Institute of Technology, said:

"The latest data indicates we are clearly in a new region where things are changing more quickly. It is very exciting. We are approaching the Solar System's frontier. The laws of physics say that Voyager will become the first human-made object to enter interstellar space, but we still don't know exactly when that will be."

Voyager 1 runs on a plutonium power source that's predicted to last for another 10-15 years.



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happened on this day in history?

1962

The Rolling Stones perform their first concert at the Marquee club, London (right).



1970

A fire consumes 90 per cent of Norwegian composer Geirr Tveitt's life's works.

1979

The island nation of Kiribati in the Pacific becomes independent from Great Britain.



2007

Footage is leaked of US Army Apache helicopters performing airstrikes in Baghdad, Iraq.

1962 Image © Rex USA/Corbis
2007 Image © Reuters/Corbis

10 COOL THINGS WE LEARNED THIS MONTH

AMAZING TOPICAL FACTS...

1 Corpse flower steals host's DNA

Scientists have discovered that the parasitic Malaysian rafflesia (also known as the corpse flower for the stench it emits) steals large chunks of DNA from its host (a vine), mimicking the process by which plants and animals pass their genes on. It was originally thought that the DNA stolen was used by rafflesia to prevent its host attacking it, but the commandeered genes fulfil a wide variety of functions.

1



'Twisted' light Wi-Fi is superfast

Researchers have found a way of 'twisting' light to create Wi-Fi and optical fibre speeds of up to 2.5 terabits a second. By manipulating the orbital angular momentum of the waves, sending out the signal in a corkscrew shape, traditional broadband media can clock up the equivalent speed of copying 60 or so DVDs in merely a second.

3

Lamps can be powered by blood

Artist Mike Thompson created a single lamp that glows when energised by a few drops of blood. You simply break the glass top off and use the sharp edge to pierce your skin, allowing the blood to drip into the ampule of chemicals. It's intended to force us to 'rethink how wasteful' our disposable society is.

4

Big oyster could be a profitable catch

If you've just found an oyster, there is part of you that hopes that you'll find a pearl inside, however slim your chances. So if you find a 100-million-year-old oyster, ten times the size of today's... Well, that's what fishermen discovered in their nets while dredging the Solent in south England. The Jurassic fossil will undergo an MRI scan to determine whether it contains a pearl that, potentially, could be the size of a golf ball.

5



L' univers, l'intelligence, la science, le livre

Les choses

L' Univers, la Réalité, le Cosmos

Les intelligences

The internet was conceived in the Thirties

Though the internet wasn't made a reality until a Sixties military project, the man behind the concept came up with the idea in 1934. Paul Otlet was a scientist who had the notion of combining television with telephone to send books on to the screen, with multiple books appearing at once, similar to windows or tabbed browsing.



2

Supermassive black hole isn't welcome

A galaxy around 4 billion light years from Earth is in the process of ejecting a supermassive black hole at its centre. NASA scientists have proposed that the black hole, millions of times the mass of the Sun, had merged with another black hole which has resulted in a recoil kick that is ejecting it at several million miles per hour.

6



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L' univers, l'intelligence, la science, le livre

010 | How It Works

Camping reaches new heights

At an altitude of 31,546 metres (103,500 feet), outdoor pursuits equipment manufacturer Vango set up base camp one. Suspended by a helium-filled balloon, the four members of team VASA (Vango Association of Space Accommodation) endured a very thin atmosphere and -40 degrees Celsius (-40 degrees Fahrenheit) before plummeting back to Earth at 86 metres (282 feet) per second. Luckily, the 'Vangonauts' were four plastic dolls, or they might not have survived the landing.



7

"Team VASA endured a very thin atmosphere and -40°C [-40°F] before plummeting back to Earth at 86m [282ft] per second"

8



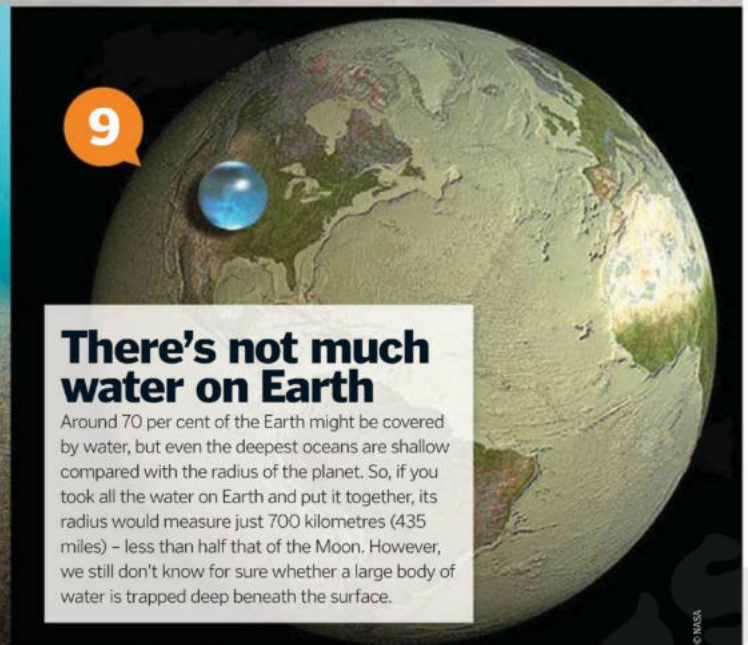
Human ancestry looks fishy

A prehistoric fish from before the dinosaurs has been linked to homo sapiens as an ancient ancestor. Acanthodes bronni is a 300-million-year-old 'jaw-mouth' with large eyes from which thousands of today's vertebrates are descended. It existed before bony fishes and early sharks made their genetic departure from each other.

9

There's not much water on Earth

Around 70 per cent of the Earth might be covered by water, but even the deepest oceans are shallow compared with the radius of the planet. So, if you took all the water on Earth and put it together, its radius would measure just 700 kilometres (435 miles) – less than half that of the Moon. However, we still don't know for sure whether a large body of water is trapped deep beneath the surface.



Porsche is now available in diamond

Are you a gangsta-rapper-entrepreneur or, like a magpie, do you just like shiny things? Well, either way, Gemballa has just the 'bling' for you, as you can now get your Porsche supercar with a diamond paint finish. The surface is made with real diamonds that are ground to dust for a superior sparkle.

10





Evolving TVs are positioning themselves at the heart of their owner's digital life, offering amazing levels of connectivity, as well as delivering a host of dynamic ways to interact with them

SUPERSMART TVS



Welcome to... TECHNOLOGY

Televisions have changed radically from the 'idiot boxes' of yesteryear, as we see here. We also discover how inhalers save lives, what's inside the Galaxy S III phone and how vacuum cleaners have evolved.



18 Water turbines



22 Galaxy S III



24 Starting blocks

- 12 Supersmart TVs
- 16 Fastest RC car
- 18 Water turbines
- 20 Exocet missiles
- 21 Asthma inhalers
- 21 Underfloor heating
- 21 Card chip readers
- 22 Samsung Galaxy S III
- 24 Sprinklers
- 24 Starting blocks
- 26 Vacuum cleaners



LEARN MORE



It's a well-known fact that technology iterates. It continually gets better, faster and more functional. This is true across all its forms, offering consumers tools and gadgets that can make their lives easier and more enjoyable. Importantly though, what is also true is that more often than not these iterations are merely incremental improvements, offering largely the same product as before but ever so slightly tweaked. Maybe the technology is slightly faster – for example, a 2.6GHz CPU over a 2.5GHz one in a computer – but it is not delivering something radically new; it does not offer a road map for future advancement.

At other times, a game-changer comes along. A piece of technology that reaches into the future and pulls back a slice of what's to come – a recent example, arguably, might be Apple's Siri personal assistant. The smart TV is about to do the same for consumer televisions. By converging the TV's traditional

high-resolution display with the computational power, connectivity and software of a PC, as well as the motion-control abilities of next-gen consoles and the type of voice-recognition and command systems made famous by Siri, smart TVs are soon to be the digital heart of every household.

From cloud computing, data storage, email and social networking, on to exercising regimes and games, through to video calling, word processing and weather reports, this new generation of televisions offers users the potential to collapse a plethora of electronic devices into one central hub, streamlining their day-to-day activities and blurring the lines between a work and leisure device. To see how smart TVs are set to accomplish this, How It Works takes a look at today's most cutting-edge unit, the Samsung ES8000 S8, exploring its hardware, software and features which are transforming the 'idiot box' into something altogether more clever. 🌟

Marketing

1 'Smart TV' is a marketing term to loosely describe a television that connects to the web and sports modern features and functionality such as gesture control.

Perspective

2 Today's top-end smart TVs output at a resolution of 1,920 x 1,080px, which is considered hi-def. However, 4K televisions already exist that more than double this resolution.

Siri

3 One of the hottest rumours currently circulating is that iPhone manufacturer, Apple, is working on a smart TV of its own and intends to incorporate its Siri personal assistant software into it.

Convergence

4 The current shift towards smart TVs is led by the concept of technological convergence, a bringing together of technology found in computers, televisions and set-top boxes into a single unit.

Open source

5 All smart TVs come with their own operating system via which the unit's apps and features may be run. These operating systems are mostly based on Linux or other Android variants.

DID YOU KNOW? The ES8000 enables users to pull pictures, videos and music wirelessly from a mobile device

Benefits of a smart TV

Combining the functions of many modern-day appliances, is this the ultimate device?

Personal computer

Smart TVs incorporate components traditionally found in PCs, such as hard drives, processors, memory and cooling fans/panels, letting users store and access media and data files.

Games console

In-built camera motion-detection capabilities, plus a variety of digital app stores, allow games and fitness applications like those demonstrated on Xbox Kinect to be accessed.

Mobile phone

Thanks to the voice-recording and recognition hardware, as well as high-definition integrated web cameras, smart TVs also enable users to make voice and video calls via Skype.



HD TV

Of course, smart TVs also mean users can enjoy their usual TV shows in standard-definition, high-definition or 3D, the latter made possible via active-shutter 3D glasses included with most models.

Tablet

Accessing websites via a capacitive touch panel is a key selling point for tablets. The smart TV takes it one step further by making online content accessible via both gesture and voice controls.

The statistics...



Samsung ES8000 S8

Width: 1,230.3mm (48.4in)
Height: 722.3mm (28.4in)
Depth: 30.8mm (1.2in)
Weight: 25.4kg (55.9lb)
Screen size: 1,397mm (55in)
Resolution: 1,920 x 1,080px
Display type: LED
Bezel: Aluminium
Power supply: AC220 - 240V (60Hz)

The new remote controls

Samsung's ES8000 typifies an industry-wide push towards gesture control, as well as voice and facial recognition, but how do they work?

The ES8000's ability to be manipulated by gestures is thanks to a motion-tracking camera. The camera automatically detects users in front of the screen and then locates and tracks hand movements. When the TV is on, the user activates gesture control by waving once; this locks the on-screen cursor to the user's hand. Then you can navigate the screen and its options by simply moving your hand. To simulate a cursor select, the user just closes and opens their palm.

While we are talking about the ES8000's camera, it also functions as a recogniser for the set's facial-recognition software. This can be used for Skype video calls, or for a facial login to the user's personal Smart Hub account. As with gesture control, this works by the camera automatically detecting the user's face with a mapping tool, and then matching their characteristics with those calibrated on the set.

Voice control is equally advanced and is made possible by a wireless IR blaster; this is a small

cone-shaped peripheral that connects to the TV wirelessly via Bluetooth and communicates with the set-top box (satellite or cable, for example) to grant control over volume and channels, among other things. This is especially important, as without it, the ES8000's voice control would be limited to crude up/down commands.

A selection of pre-programmed instructions each activate different aspects of the television's

and set-top box's control schemes. Voice control is initiated by the user saying, "Hi, TV". Once this has been activated, it offers fine management of channel selection, volume and power, as well as several other functions. For instance, if you wanted to change from channel 3 to 27, you'd simply say, "Hi, TV. Channel 27." The voice-control function even lets users vocally log in and out of various accounts and services.





"Samsung has integrated its own app store – Samsung Apps – directly into the Smart Hub"

Maximum connectivity

Smart TVs offer a direct portal to the internet, creating a whole new way to surf the web

Sharing

One of the top features of Samsung's Smart TVs, the ES8000's AllShare software allows users to push content wirelessly to the screen or pull content off it and on to a smartphone or tablet via a home network. The former works by simply selecting a file from the handheld device, activating the AllShare option on a submenu, and then dictating a destination. As such, if a user has recorded a video on their smartphone, they can quickly share the content with others on the TV's far larger screen. In contrast, the pull feature enables a user to drag specific TV channels from the set's screen on to a tablet, so you don't miss a moment.

Apps

Samsung has integrated its own app store – Samsung Apps – directly into the Smart Hub UI. These apps are largely small tools for streaming content, playing games or accessing online info – eg news sites – rather than the large-scale varieties found on the App Store or Google Play. But due to the customisable nature of the Smart Hub, they can be positioned on the home screen and operated via the ES8000's gesture and voice-control functions.

Video

On-demand and video-streaming services are directly accessible through the Smart Hub or a selection of applications. These allow content to be streamed wirelessly over the internet at 1080p directly on to the screen and, most importantly, without the need for a dedicated TV service provider. The ES8000 is also tailored for video playback from perennially popular sites like YouTube, with all resolution videos capable of being streamed live.

Social networking

Along with a direct internet connection, the ES8000 provides both in-browser access to social-networking sites like Facebook and Twitter, as well as dedicated UI applications. Uniquely though, thanks to the unit's dual-core CPU, picture-in-picture functionality allows these social-networking sites to be open alongside a TV channel, enabling users to comment on programmes as they are being broadcast so they can update their status accordingly.



The race to 5K

Next-generation TVs are leaving 'HD' resolutions in their dust, doubling and tripling them over colossal panels

While today TVs are marketed on their ability to output images at 'HD' resolutions – maxing out at 1080p (1,920 x 1,080) – the future of consumer products promises far greater resolutions. Indeed, showpiece panels already have been developed that output images at twice, or even three times, those figures. 4K screens – named due to their horizontal resolution of approximately 4,000 pixels – more than double that of 1080p screens, and as such, allow for crisp image reproduction on far

bigger units. A good example is the Panasonic TH-152UX1, which delivers 4,096 x 2,160 across a 386-centimetre (152-inch) set. Despite its awesome size and resolution, the UX1 costs \$500,000 and is made to order, so screens like this won't be going mainstream anytime soon. Regardless though, the UX1 gives a taste of the current race to 5K – a race that is accelerating at a furious rate due to many filmmakers already shooting on 5K video cameras (such as on *The Hobbit*).





DID YOU KNOW? The ES8000 has an 800Hz clear motion rate [CMR], which helps to prevent blur in fast-moving images

Cloud computing

The ES8000 ships with 5GB of cloud storage per user, which can be accessed via the Family Story app. This lets users upload photos, video and audio files to the cloud and store them remotely. As such, the cloud data repository can be accessed by more than just the TV itself, with content accessible via Samsung smartphones and tablets. In addition, these auxiliary devices can also upload content to the cloud repository directly and remotely, enabling, for example, a user to upload photo content while away on holiday and allow another family member – who couldn't make the trip – to access it instantly via the home TV.

Fitness

One addition that makes great use of the ES8000's motion-tracking camera is the Smart Hub's Fitness software. This acts in a similar way to activity-based games released on Microsoft's Kinect console add-on, dictating a wide variety of exercises to complete and then tracking your progress. As the user is exercising, the set's camera generates an artificial mirror, presenting a video stream on an overlay next to their virtual instructor, helping you to copy their actions. This is signed in and out of via the facial login, so individual accounts can be set up.

Is 3D TV dead?

The marketing has largely fallen on deaf ears over the past three years – so does 3D TV have a future?

'3D TV' currently relies on a user wearing one of three types of 3D glasses: anaglyphic, polarised or alternate-frame sequencing. The former two are passive technologies, using a series of filters to encode an image for each of the eyes to generate a mild 3D effect, while the latter is an active technology and the one currently being taken up by smart TVs. This active sequencing works by opening and closing minuscule shutters in the glasses to alternately present an image to the left and right eyes in sequence. These glasses do this so rapidly that the perceived 2D images fuse into a single 3D one.

Critically, however, all of these technologies have certain issues. First, for any user to perceive a 3D effect they need a pair of glasses, which are often very expensive. Second, the glasses – if active – require batteries to operate, adding

to the lifetime expense of the unit. Third, all types darken the viewed images dramatically, leading to less vibrant pictures or requiring the television to overcompensate, outputting images at incredibly bright and saturated levels.

The future of 3D, however, is far from over, with a new push to produce glasses-free 3D TVs. These prototype models adopt an evolved form of the autostereoscopy used in the Nintendo 3DS games console, but, unlike the 3DS, they allow 3D to be perceived at more than one central viewing angle. These sets do this in a variety of ways, but the one with most traction so far is a motion-tracking camera, which follows a viewer's eyes and repositions the 3D effect accordingly.



Right now high-end smart TVs come bundled with active-shutter 3D glasses

© Panasonic

Semiconductor heaven

Bells and whistles aside, the advanced circuitry is the real brains of smart TVs

Conexant voice recogniser

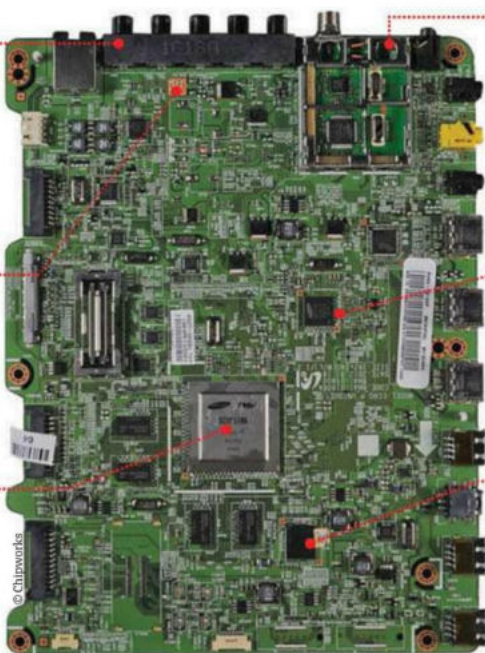
Voice recognition on the ES8000 comes courtesy of a Conexant voice input processor, which is positioned along with the circuitry needed for sound reproduction on a secondary board.

Wi-Fi module

While the ES8000 has an Ethernet input for a hard-wired internet connection, it also comes with a Ralink 8572N Wi-Fi module, which allows the set to connect wirelessly to the user's router too.

Digital Natural Image engine

The DNIe chip uses four proprietary processes – a motion optimiser, contrast enhancer, detail enhancer and colour optimiser – to boost image and sound quality.



Expansion port

This TV comes with a rear-mounted expansion port, which is included to allow its firmware and hardware to be augmented with an evolution module in the future. This means that the set can be upgraded periodically.

LCD timing controller

The timing controller chipset optimises the screen's pixel refresh timing, ensuring the generation of consistent image reproduction at all times.

Frame rate controller

The SDP1111 frame rate controller allows the LED panel to produce over 16 million colour shades through dithering, a method that combines adjacent pixel colours for shade simulation.

As we have seen, the ES8000 S8 Smart TV from Samsung offers a boatload of next-generation features, ranging from motion and voice control, through cloud computing and on to an app-tacular Smart Hub user interface. Importantly though, all of these rely on – and indeed would be useless without – a selection of advanced physical hardware, which luckily the S8 has in spades.

In fact, when you take the unit apart, it's easy to see how this device is significantly more advanced than a stock HD TV. From memory modules and application processors through to imaging technology, the ES8000 is stuffed with some hot semiconductor tech. All over the main board, which is housed in a pure aluminium shell – as well as over a brace of subsidiary ones – a mountain of silicon can be found, plus a couple of items that even use the latest generation of 32-nanometre high-k/metal-gate (HKMG) material. Take a look at the teardown for some of the key components of this awesome hardware.

"The ES8000 Smart TV is stuffed with some hot semiconductor tech"



"To improve the car's handling, its shock absorbers are held in stiff aluminium shock towers"

The remote-control supercar up close



What's inside the speediest ready-to-race RC car?



The Traxxas XO-1 can rocket from 0-97 kilometres (0-60 miles) per hour in 2.3 seconds and, just as impressively, 0-161 kilometres (0-100 miles) per hour in merely 4.92 seconds.

Its incredibly high performance is due to a lithium polymer (LiPo) battery-powered motor that engages with an all-wheel drivetrain, which transmits the power to the front and rear gearboxes. At each end, the car features a bespoke Cush Drive damper between the spur gear and drive hub that flexes to absorb the load created by high-traction acceleration. To improve the smoothness of the ride and handling of the car, its shock absorbers are held in stiff aluminium shock towers.

Being a low-slung, 1:7 scale model that is 686 millimetres (27 inches) long by 300 millimetres (11.8 inches) wide, it has a large and stable

platform that delivers much better stability and handling compared to 1:10 scale cars. In addition, it has a smooth undertray and one-millimetre (0.04-inch) polycarbonate aerodynamic body with an injection-moulded rear wing to convert airflow into downforce while simultaneously minimising drag.

For maximum performance, durability and efficiency, the XO-1's gears are eight millimetres (0.32 inches) wide and the teeth are bigger than those of conventional electric RC cars. The slick tyres are also composed of soft compound rubber to deal with the immense speeds.

Using the Traxxas Link App, connected to an Apple iPhone or iPod touch that's docked in the controller, fine adjustments can be made to the car, and telemetry data from the XO-1, such as RPM, temperature and battery voltage, can all be viewed in real-time.

Radio control system

The TQi control transmitter sends out a powerful 2.4GHz signal to the five-channel micro-receiver inside the supercar. Two of these channels control the speed and steering, and it has three telemetry ports that send real-time sensor data back to the controller.

The controller is powered by four AA batteries and has an internal antenna. The main controls are a trigger-operated throttle and a steering wheel. Tweaks to the sensitivity of the steering, throttle and braking can all be made using a docked iDevice, via a hi-def colour display, which also presents real-time stats on things like speed and RPM.



Inside the Traxxas XO-1's body

What under-the-hood engineering powers this miniature racer?

Motor

The Big Block Brushless Motor, with premium-quality bearings, consists of neodymium magnets contained in a heat-dissipating unit.



Shock absorbers

The oil-filled shock absorber shafts are coated with titanium nitride and slide through X-ring seals. This provides a smooth ride and better handling, plus reduces the need for maintenance.

Chassis

The XO-1 has strong yet lightweight 3mm (0.12in)-thick upper and lower aluminium chassis decks.

Drivetrain

The hollow and lightweight, extruded aluminium drivetrain engages directly with the front and rear gearboxes. It delivers power to all four wheels of the car.

The statistics...



Traxxas XO-1

Engine:
Big Block Brushless Motor

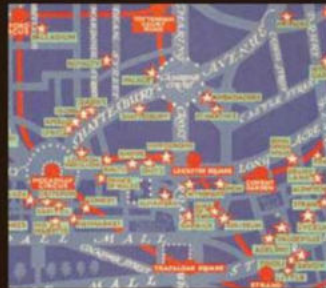
Power: 2 x Traxxas Power Cell 5,000mAh LiPo batteries

Top speed:
>161km/h (>100mph)

Acceleration: 0-161km/h (0-100mph) in 4.92 seconds

Length: 68.6cm (27in)

Width: 30cm (11.8in)

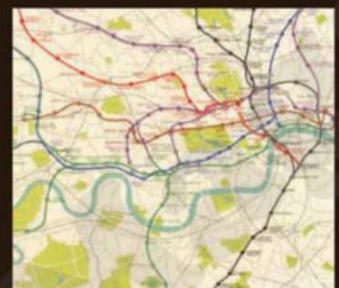
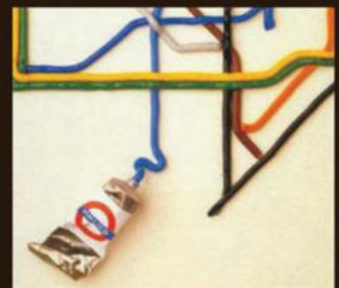


**Exhibition runs until
28 October 2012**

Covent Garden Piazza, WC2E 7BB

MIND THE MAP

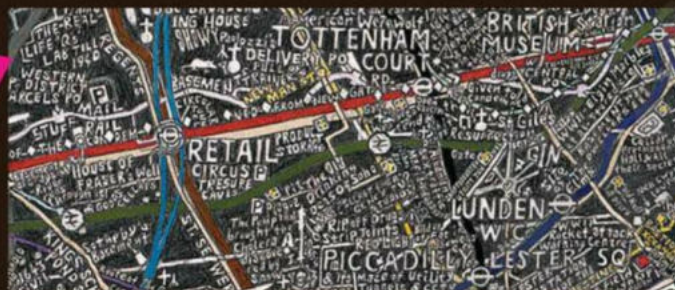
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Stories
of the World



ARTS COUNCIL
ENGLAND





"Turbines are the next natural technological evolution of the water wheel"

HOW WATER TURBINES WORK

The simple technology that harnesses the immense natural power of water



Water wheels have been around for several thousand years, the concept of using water to power basic machinery like mill wheels (essentially harnessing the Earth's gravity) being well within the grasp of ancient engineers. Turbines are the next natural technological evolution of the water wheel and, although the Romans sometimes used a form of turbine for their water wheels and agricultural uses, it wasn't until the Industrial Revolution (circa 1750-1850) that the first modern turbines emerged.

Turbines are essentially propellers in reverse, both of which work in direct accordance to Isaac Newton's third law – namely, for every action there has to be an equal and opposite reaction. In propellers, that means energy is put into a spindle of

asymmetrical blades that puts pressure on the air or water, which pushes back to propel the vehicle.

Turbines are usually fixed in place, so when a fluid flows through it there is a drop in pressure at the back edge of each blade that causes the turbine to turn. The principle is the same for air or water and the faster the medium is moving, the greater the pressure drop, and the faster the turbine spins.

It's a much more efficient method than water wheels that yields greater hydraulic head (ie the amount of force the water can generate) with smaller apparatus. Historically turbines directly drove the huge factories of the 19th century, but since the dawn of electricity, they're used to generate power that can be stored or passed on to the national electrical grid for a clean and renewable source of power. ⚙

Source

Whether a lake or river, the source of water is chosen for its elevated position, from which the dam can take advantage of gravity.



The Hoover Dam is near Boulder City, Nevada, USA. It impounds Lake Mead, and has been controlling floods and providing hydroelectric power since 1936



Types of turbine

There are two main types of turbine: impulse and reaction. Essentially these names describe the different blade mechanism used. In impulse turbines, where water jets onto the blades, the pressure drop (where the energy transfer occurs) takes place in the convergent guide vanes that direct the fluid onto the rotor blades. The opposite happens in a reaction turbine, where the rotor blades have convergent passages and the pressure drop happens here. Impulse turbines are usually unsuitable for low-head sites because they have low specific speeds, but they're easier to maintain. Reaction turbines, on the other hand, can rotate faster given the same head and flow conditions, but generally require a greater level of maintenance.



An early Pelton-type impulse turbine from the late-19th century

1. MICRO-POWER



Trzebiatów Hydro Station
Micro-hydroelectric powerplants, like the 155kW Trzebiatów Hydro Station in Poland, can be a greener option than larger dams.

2. MEGA-POWER



Gordon Dam
The Gordon Dam in Tasmania has a 430MW capacity, making it something of a middleweight as far as hydroelectric dams go.

3. GIGA-POWER



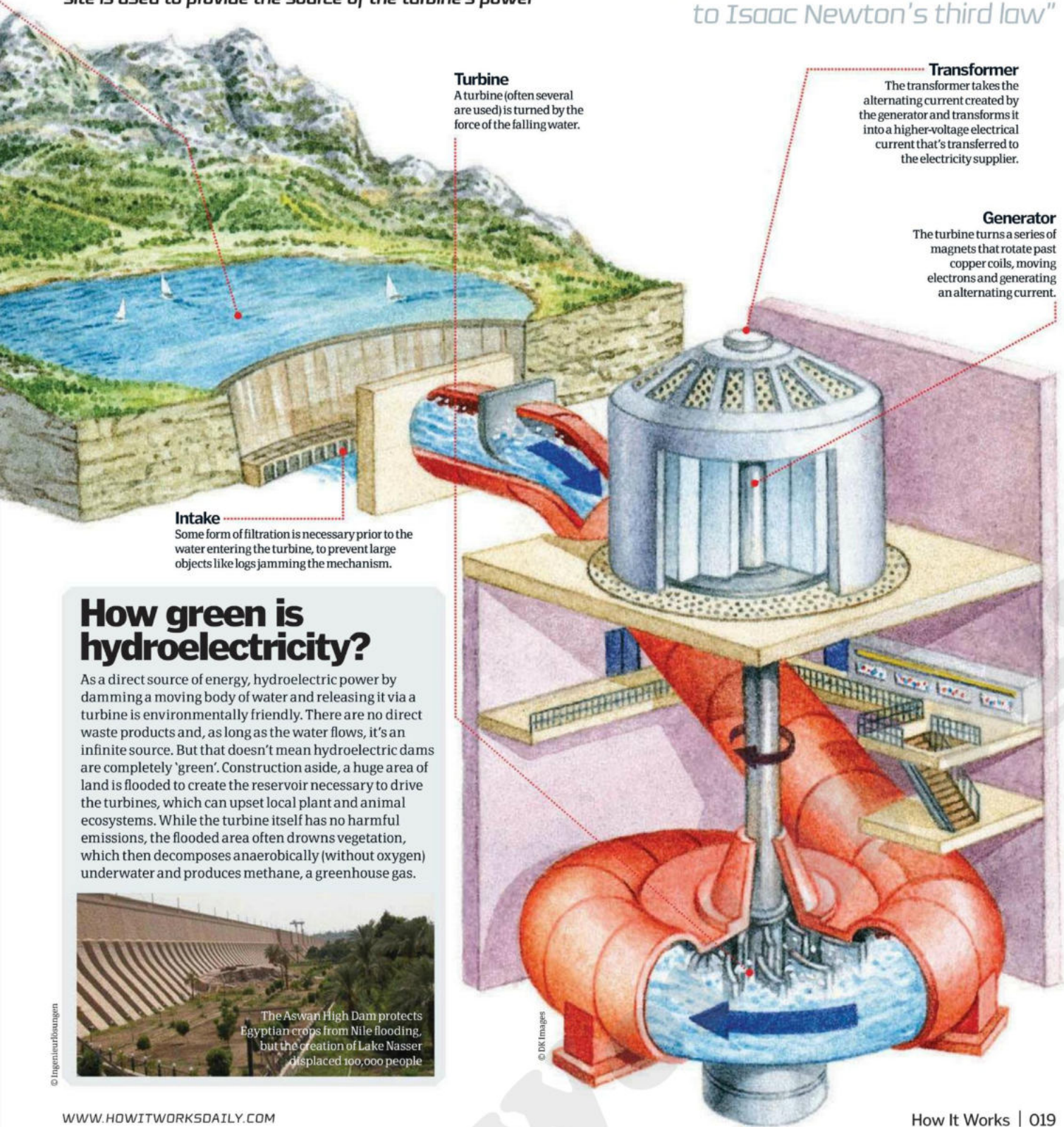
Three Gorges Dam
Easily the world's biggest hydroelectric powerplant is the Three Gorges Dam, which spans the Yangtze River in central Hubei, China. It can boast a staggering 18,200MW capacity.

DID YOU KNOW? A prototype wind turbine in Abu Dhabi also creates 1,000 [265g] of drinking water daily via condensation

Turbines in context

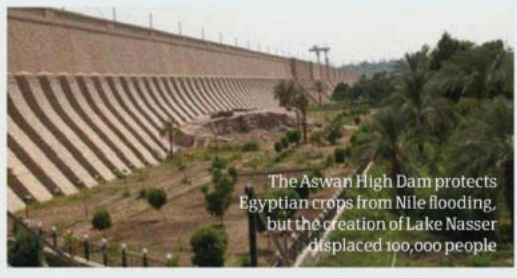
A lake or river is dammed off and the natural elevation of the site is used to provide the source of the turbine's power

"Turbines are essentially propellers in reverse, both of which work in direct accordance to Isaac Newton's third law"



How green is hydroelectricity?

As a direct source of energy, hydroelectric power by damming a moving body of water and releasing it via a turbine is environmentally friendly. There are no direct waste products and, as long as the water flows, it's an infinite source. But that doesn't mean hydroelectric dams are completely 'green'. Construction aside, a huge area of land is flooded to create the reservoir necessary to drive the turbines, which can upset local plant and animal ecosystems. While the turbine itself has no harmful emissions, the flooded area often drowns vegetation, which then decomposes anaerobically (without oxygen) underwater and produces methane, a greenhouse gas.



The Aswan High Dam protects Egyptian crops from Nile flooding, but the creation of Lake Nasser displaced 100,000 people



HOW IT WORKS TECHNOLOGY

Exocet missiles

"When launched it uses its radar altimeter to skim over the sea at a height of ten metres [33 feet]"



How an Exocet missile works

Discover the inner workings that, when combined, make up this notoriously deadly maritime weapon



The French-built Exocet MM38 began life back in 1967 as a surface-to-surface, ship-launched missile. In 1974 the air-to-surface Exocet AM39 was produced, and this was followed by the SM39 submarine-to-surface variant in 1979. Since its introduction, its inertial navigation system has been massively

improved and it now contains a digital radar seeker to find its target, as well as systems to avoid electronic jamming.

When launched it uses its radar altimeter to skim over the sea at a height of ten metres (33 feet) and then descend to three metres (ten feet) as it closes in on its unfortunate target. On impact, the blast fragmentation warhead is capable of inflicting serious damage to huge warships such as destroyers and frigates.

Over 3,600 Exocets have been built and sold throughout the world since its inception. It proved a formidable weapon in the Eighties, when used in both the Falklands and the Iran-Iraq conflicts.

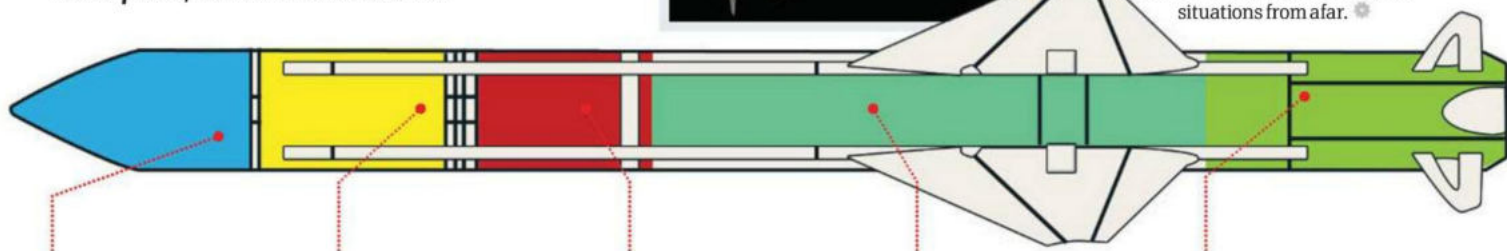
The latest MM40 Block 3 Exocet has a booster rocket and turbojet sustainer motor to reach a range of 180 kilometres (112 miles) and has a 3D navigation system with an active seeker capable of homing in on moving targets in complex situations from afar.

Exocet means 'flying fish' in French, and both missile and fish have wing-like fins to help them fly



Inside the AM39 Exocet

This air-to-surface missile can be launched from both fighter jets and medium-sized helicopters, but what lies within?



Seeker

The front of the missile houses the radar seeker equipment that includes an autopilot system, radio altimeter, accelerometers and gyros as part of its inertial navigation guidance systems and the radio proximity fuse.

Electronics

The distance and bearing of the target is inputted into the navigational computer before it is launched. Inertial guidance carries the missile to an activation point where the radar seeker actively searches for the target.

Warhead

All Exocet versions contain 165kg (363lb) of Hexolite explosive. A delayed fuse triggers the explosive once the missile has penetrated a ship's hull, though as a backup, a proximity fuse sets off the explosive if it overflies its mark.

Fuel tank

Contains a Condor solid-fuel booster rocket and a Helios solid-propellant sustainer rocket.

Powerplant

The booster rocket launches the Exocet to a speed of 1,138km/h (707mph), then its sustainer rocket motor fires for four minutes to maintain a speed of 1,116km/h (694mph). The AM39 missile has a range of up to 70km (44mi).

Personal CNC for Home or Hobby

Don't Let Your Tools Hold Back Your Creativity

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- 3-Axis CNC Milling Machine cuts aluminum, steel, plastic, wood and more
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- Space-saving footprint
- Requires single-phase 230VAC 50/60Hz electrical service
- Optional accessories: Reverse Engineering CNC Scanner, 4th Axis, Digitizing Probe



www.tormach.com

Steel Clutch Plate for Reproduction Case 65 Steam Traction Engine machined with the PCNC 1100



3-Axis Mill

\$8480

USD (plus shipping)



Shown here with optional stand, LCD monitor, machine arm, and accessories.



Breathe easy

1 Ancient cultures in India, Greece and Egypt discovered that inhaling the smoke or vapours from medicinal leaves and herbs helped relieve a number of respiratory problems.

Incense

2 Ancient civilisations also found that the smoke produced by burning incense (a mix of medicinal plants, minerals and gum resins) eased tension. It became common practice to use it to purify the air and during religious ceremonies.

Pressurised inhalers

3 These were invented by Riker Laboratories in 1956, after the daughter of the company's president asked why she could not use her asthma medication in the same way as her hairspray can worked.

Chlorofluorocarbons

4 In 2009, the US banned the use of CFCs as propellants in inhalers as they could be harmful to the ozone layer. Since then less harmful hydrofluorocarbons (HFCs) have been used instead.

Statistics

5 Over 5 million people in the UK suffer from asthma, and there are over 1,100 asthma-related deaths per year; 90 per cent of these are preventable with the correct use of an inhaler.

DID YOU KNOW? Romans developed the original underfloor heating system over 2,000 years ago; it was called a hypocaust

How do inhalers help asthmatics?

Why this portable device is something no asthma sufferer should be without

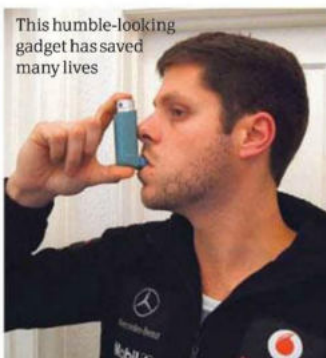


Metered-dose inhalers (MDIs) are small hand-operated devices that can send out an aerosol with a precise amount of medication into a small chamber. The user then breathes in the drugs through the mouthpiece, and the medication goes directly to the airways and lungs.

The inhaler, or puffer, consists of a plastic body and a pressurised canister that contains the medication and a propellant vapour. Large plastic, valved holding chambers, or spacers, can be fitted to the mouthpiece of the inhaler, if desired, so that the user has more time to inhale the aerosol.

For the treatment of asthma, the user usually has two colour-coded inhalers. One is a 'preventer' inhaler

which contains medication that has to be used on a regular basis, and the other is a 'reliever'; the latter is used in the event of breathlessness or a sudden asthma attack.



Inside an asthma inhaler

Canister

The replaceable canister contains the drug mixture (commonly including anti-inflammatory steroids) and propellant vapour; it is held inside the actuator body of the inhaler.

Top of inhaler or canister

You push down on the top to press a spring into the canister, which delivers one dose of medicine.

Metering chamber

This holds one dose of the medication; as soon as it is released, it is replaced by another dose.

Mouthpiece

You breathe in the aerosol directly through the mouthpiece, or via a spacer attached to the mouthpiece.

Actuator nozzle

This sprays out the drug-saturated vapour into the expansion chamber.

How underfloor heating works

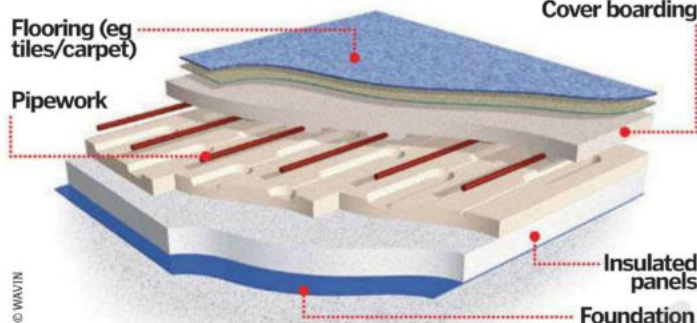
What is this economical and efficient way of keeping our homes toasty?



Traditional wall-mounted radiator heating systems convect heat into the room, sending heat towards the ceiling in a circular cycle. In contrast, underfloor heating consists of electric elements, or water pipes, that radiate heat up evenly throughout the whole room. For optimum efficiency, a thermostat in each room can monitor and control the temperature.

Underfloor heating is also unobtrusive and easier to maintain as the elements, or pipework, can be embedded in concrete floors when houses are constructed, or they can be fitted under existing flooring.

A saving of 20 per cent can be made on fuel bills, and for buildings with high ceilings, savings can reach as high as 40 per cent compared with traditional heating systems.



Why is eBanking safer with chip readers?

Get to know the chip authentication tech that makes online banking much more secure



Chip authentication readers use a two-factor chip authentication method, which consists of 'something you know', such as your PIN number or password, and 'something you own' such as your existing chip-enabled bankcard or a special authentication card.

When you insert your card into the handheld device and enter your PIN number, the reader generates a unique eight-digit code. This code number comprises a secret seed value that is permuted every time you enter your PIN number, or it is altered at specific time intervals. The host server recognises this number when you use it to log in to your online banking account. The reader is not physically connected to your computer and a new code has to be generated every time that you log in to your account.





"A notable software inclusion is the next iteration of Samsung's voice-recognition app: S Voice"

Inside the Galaxy S III

What technology lies within Samsung's fastest-ever smartphone? Explore our teardown to find out...



The Galaxy S III is the latest iteration of Samsung's Galaxy series of smartphones. It runs on the cutting-edge version of the Android OS, Ice Cream Sandwich, and delivers a raft of new hardware and software.

In terms of hardware, the S III's arsenal includes a 1.4GHz, quad-core CPU, a 720 x 1,280 HD Super AMOLED capacitive touchscreen, 1GB of RAM, 16-64GB of storage space, an eight-megapixel rear camera, a 2,100mAh lithium-ion battery and a whole host of connectivity and motion sensors, including an accelerometer, gyro, Wi-Fi module and RF transceiver among others.

As far as the device's hardware specs go, a couple of elements of the S III stand out. The phone's Multi-Chip Package (MCP), for instance, allows the majority of its memory chips – regardless of type – to be integrated into a single bundle. As such, the S III's NAND flash, NOR flash and SDRAM/DRAM memory chips are all situated on the MCP; this enables the memory subsystem to view and access the chips as a single, unified block, granting incredibly high data transfer rates.

The other hardware element worth mentioning is the S III's 12.2-centimetre (4.8-inch), Gorilla Glass display. The screen adopts Samsung's HD Super AMOLED screen technology, which – thanks to the inclusion of two sub-pixels per every pixel on the display – allows the S III to generate great contrast ratios and clean colours. Bonded directly to the display is a piece of Corning Gorilla Glass, which is a form of alkali-aluminosilicate sheet glass that specialises in preventing scratches and cracks if the device is dropped. This is thanks to its ion exchange manufacturing process: the glass is bathed in molten potassium nitrate to force sodium ions to exchange with 30 per cent larger potassium ions in order to toughen up the material.

In terms of software, the S III has a couple of new additions that are integrated efficiently into Ice Cream Sandwich's host of stock OS features (for a rundown of these see the Galaxy Nexus article in issue 30 of *How It Works*). The first of these is Smart Stay, a piece of software that utilises the S III's front-mounted camera to continuously track your eyes and, as a

consequence, ensure the display stays lit whenever a user is looking at it or dim/off if they are not. Testing revealed the feature worked roughly 80 per cent of the time. The other notable software inclusion is not entirely new but the next iteration of Samsung's voice-recognition app: S Voice. This is a Siri-like program that, through its use of a natural language user interface and various web services, such as Wolfram Alpha, allows basic commands and queries to be automatically responded to.

Motherboard

The S III's motherboard holds a bounty of chips, including the device's quad-core A9 CPU and 16GB NAND flash memory.

Cameras

The Galaxy S III comes equipped with two cameras: a rear-facing 8MP camera and a front-facing one that features 1.9MP.

The Galaxy S III is only 8.6mm (0.34in) thick



The statistics...

Galaxy S III

Height:	136.6mm (5.38in)
Width:	70.6mm (2.78in)
Depth:	8.6mm (0.34in)
Weight:	133g (4.7oz)
OS:	Android 4.0.4 (ICS)
CPU:	ARM Cortex-A9 (1.4GHz)
RAM:	1GB
Storage:	16-64GB
Battery:	2,100mAh
Display:	12.2cm (4.8in) HD sAMOLED (1,280 x 720px)



"In terms of hardware, the S III's arsenal includes a 1.4GHz, quad-core CPU"

Case

The casing is made from brushed polycarbonate and can be removed easily by prying open a few tabs. It tapers at each end slightly to create a smooth bezel.

Battery

The 3.8V, 2,100mAh cell is a lithium-ion variety and incorporates the antenna necessary for near-field communication (NFC) features.

Screen

The 12.2cm (4.8in) display is fused to the Gorilla Glass and to the S III's polycarbonate frame. The screen can boast 306 pixels per inch.

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"Omega's newest starting blocks measure a runner's reaction time not by movement but by pressure"

Starting blocks

A far cry from the days when athletes had to dig their own starting holes



In 1932 Omega became the official timekeeper of the Olympic Games and, over the years, the company has introduced numerous state-of-the-art time-keeping technologies. Today's fully automated Olympic and Paralympic Games feature such precision engineering as high-speed cameras for capturing nail-biting photo finishes, touch-sensitive contact pads for timing swimming events, as well as plenty of innovative tech for starting races.

The 'Electronic Start System' involves a flashgun and sound-making device. With one pull of the trigger, a bang, a flash and a start pulse are all emitted at the same time. The start pulse is sent to the timing device, signalling the start of the race and commencing the precision data measurement. The competitors all 'see' the light flash from the gun at the same time, but to ensure that they all 'hear' the sound simultaneously too, the noise is reproduced from a mini speaker positioned behind each racer's starting block.

Omega's newest starting blocks measure the runner's reaction time not by movement but by the pressure they exert against the foot pad. No one's reaction time is faster than one tenth of a second, therefore if the sensors in a starting block detect that a runner has exerted any force on the pressure pads on the pedal, then they are deemed to have started too early and a false start will be confirmed.



Learn more



Families looking for fun ways to learn about the science of sport throughout the Olympic and Paralympic Games can visit INTECH Science Centre's new hands-on exhibition zone. It's full of exciting activities to help children understand things like how muscles work, how concentration helps you compete better, and how to 'bend it like Beckham'. For more information go to www.intech-uk.com.

Omega's athletics starting blocks

The tech behind 'on your marks, get set, go!'

Pedals

The pedals offer the runner momentum when starting a race. In 2012 the foot pads have been enlarged from 120mm to 160mm (4.7in to 6.3in) to cater for individual start position preferences. The pedal surface is covered by a rubberised material in order to increase grip.

Speaker

At the tail end of each block is an electronic speaker linked to the starter pistol. When the pistol is fired to indicate the beginning of the race the sound is reproduced here.

Rack

This is the heavy aluminium bar with notches to adjust the position of the blocks. This year the bar is thinner – reduced to 50mm (2in) – again offering improved start position options.

Understanding fire sprinklers

A closer look at how these firefighting devices extinguish a blaze



Fire sprinkler systems are fed by pressurised water from the mains or by their own supply. This water is kept from being released by a plug inside the sprinkler head that will only be released when the temperature exceeds 68 degrees Celsius (155 degrees Fahrenheit). At this temperature, the tiny ampule that seals the plug mechanism will shatter to release a deluge of water in one to two minutes.

In more vulnerable environments, smaller-diameter ampules are used for a faster response time. Some sprinkler heads have spring-loaded plates soldered in place over the plug, and are activated when the solder melts.

These are known as closed-type sprinklers, because once they are opened, they will spray water until their supply is cut. The on-off sprinkler, although activated in the same manner, features a heat-sensitive pilot valve that stops the discharge of water once the temperature has dropped.

Inside the sprinkler head

How does it detect fire and then put it out?

Plug

The ampule seals the plug to prevent water being released under normal circumstances.

Bubble

The ampule contains an air bubble that allows for the normal expansion of the glycerin-based liquid inside it.

Ampule

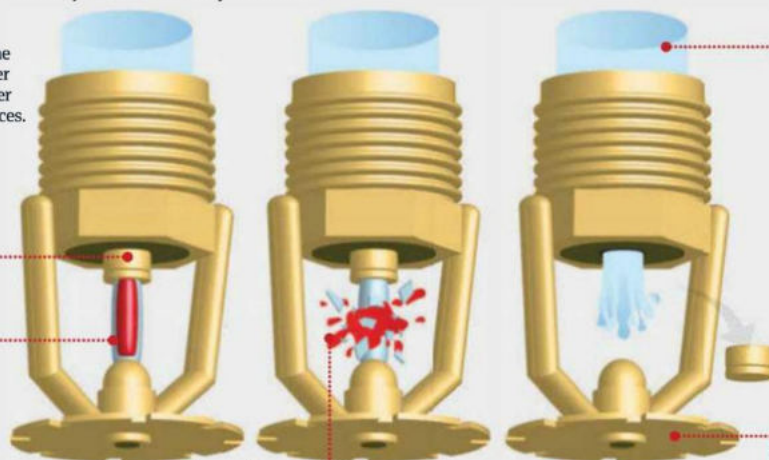
This vacuum-sealed ampule contains a liquid that, when heated, breaks the glass, unsealing the plug to release water into the room below.

Deflector plate

When water is released this plate deflects it downwards in a hemispherical pattern.

Water supply

The sprinkler head is typically fitted to a network of water pipes and other sprinkler heads that work independently of one another.



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"Cyclonic vacuums separate dust by exposing the dirt-filled air to large centrifugal forces"

How bagless vacuum cleaners work

The humble vacuum cleaner has undergone a serious makeover. Learn how these everyday devices keep our homes spic and span



Vacuum cleaners work in a variety of ways, each largely dependent on the type of suction and filtering methods adopted. However, within the modern vacuum cleaner market, three main systems dominate, each using differing suction, separation and filtering techniques and technology.

The first common type is the direct fan variety, which can either use a bag or canister for dust storage. Direct fan vacuums suck up dirt through a large impeller mounted close to the brushbar – the cylindrical brush typically located at the front-bottom of the appliance – or suction opening. The dirt is agitated, ie drawn, out of the carpet or other surface

and then deposited into the device's storage container, either directly or through a filter. These units are generally used for industrial cleaning purposes, as they generate a high-volume, low-energy consumption airflow, however due to their low suction power and basic filtering system, they're not so well suited to the domestic environment.

The second main type of vacuum is the cyclonic variety. These differ significantly from direct fan types, as instead of separating dust with a series of impellers and bag filters, they do so by exposing the dirt-filled air to large centrifugal (ie moving away from the centre) forces. This works by the cleaner sucking in airborne dust into a specialised collection vessel at a specific angle (at a tangent). This process forces the air to generate a fast-spinning vortex, which

Shell

The ball's outer shell is made from glass-reinforced polypropylene, which both provides protection for all internal components and aids smooth manoeuvring.



Sweeper

1 The first vacuum cleaners were called carpet sweepers and relied on elaborate, bellows-based mechanisms to generate suction. They manually swept up dirt and dust with rotating brushes.

Dyson

2 Today the foremost name in the vacuum industry is Sir James Dyson, a British engineer famed for creating bagless vacuum cleaners. It took him 5,000 prototypes to perfect.

Roomba

3 A recent addition to the market is the iRobot Roomba series of robotic cleaners. These small, circular devices use a variety of sensors to periodically clean a user's home automatically.

Filtration

4 Vacuum cleaners can use a variety of methods to filter gathered dust, ranging from traditional material-capturing bags to water filters and cyclonic separation.

Suck-cess story

5 After Dyson perfected his bagless cleaner, every vacuum manufacturer rejected it. Dyson set up his own company and is now worth £2.69bn (\$4.2bn), according to Forbes.

DID YOU KNOW? The first vacuum cleaner was patented by US engineer Daniel Hess in 1860

through its centrifugal force, causes the dust particles trapped within it to move to the outside of the vessel. The dirt, once freed from the air vortex, then falls to the base of the container through gravity for later disposal. In addition, due to the dust being separated without using a bag or extensive series of filters, cyclonic vacuums can boast very high suction levels. As such, they are very popular in residential markets, as their continuous high levels of suction enable various attachments for particular tasks to be used with little to no loss of airflow.

The third and most recent addition to the vacuum market is the robotic vacuum cleaner. These small – often circular – devices operate automatically by analysing a room with a variety of positional, acoustic and visual sensors and then proceed to periodically sweep its floor. These units typically use impellers, compressed vacuum bins and a series of filters to draw in fine particulate dirt through their bottom-mounted brooms and brushes, before storing it internally for later

manual extraction. Due to the small-scale nature of these vacuum cleaners, they are commonly used for small residential or medical applications, however their suction volume and intensity matches neither direct fan nor cyclonic types and they do not generally accept attachments either which limits their usefulness.

Each of these three systems, as mentioned, uses one or more filters to remove particulate dust and dirt from the air, which all vacuums exhaust directly back into the immediate environment. These filters include standard bags, finely perforated paper or cloth containers, water tanks, plastic meshes, charcoal sheets and HEPA (high-efficiency particulate arresting) traps. Often, a combination of these filters is used within any given device, playing to each of their strengths. For example, charcoal sheets are especially good at removing odour particles, while HEPA traps specialise in capturing minuscule particles (as tiny as 0.3 micrometres).

The statistics...

DC41 Animal

Height: 1.07m (3.5ft)

Width: 0.39m (1.3ft)

Depth: 0.34m (1.1ft)

Weight: 7.8kg (17.2lb)

Filtration: Cyclonic

Suction power: 255 AW

Movement type: Ball pivot

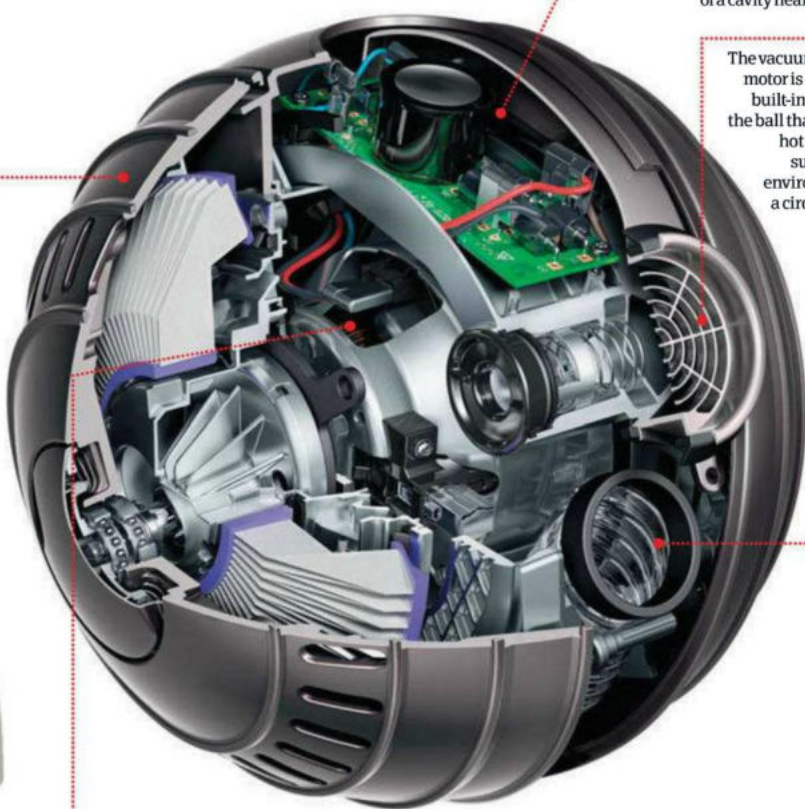
Head type: Motorised brushbar

Bin capacity: 2.1l (0.46ga)



Inside Dyson's DC41 Animal

The Dyson Ball is at the core of the DC41 vacuum, but what tech does this pivotable sphere conceal?



Cabling

The ball has also been designed to house the Animal's power cable, which extends into and out of a cavity near the motor.

Fan

The vacuum's electric motor is cooled by a built-in fan within the ball that transfers hot air into the surrounding environment via a circular series of vents.

Ducts

Air drawn in through the brushbar and/or suction hose is routed through the ball itself through a series of ducts and into the bin.



Why is cyclonic cleaning so effective?

A landmark breakthrough in vacuum cleaner tech, cyclonic separation and filtration grants both power and efficiency

1 Intake

Dirt-containing air is routed into the collection vessel via the brushbar or suction hole and thrown against its outer wall at a tangential angle.

2 Vortex

A vortex is generated by the air's movement within the central bin, forcing large dirt particles and dust to be prised free and spun to the sides of the vessel.

3 Bin

The dirt, once free from the bin vortex, falls down the sides to the base of the container where it is stored. Typically, this bin can be manually removed by the user and simply tipped out with the general rubbish.

4 Filter

The remaining air – which may still be contaminated with fine dust – is then passed through an internal filter, trapping further dirt that may have been missed.

5 Mini-cyclones

Finally, the air is drawn up through the centre of the vacuum into a series of cyclones. Again the air is routed at a tangential angle, however their smaller size generates a higher velocity spin and allows even the smallest dirt particles to be captured, and again dropped into the bin below.

Motor

A small electric motor lies at the heart of the ball and is used to power the fans, turbines and brushes of the DC41 Animal.



Welcome to... TRANSPORT

It's weird to think that there are places in outer space that we know more about than certain areas of our deepest oceans, but a new wave of submersibles is hoping to change that. Learn about the ultimate clean machine in our road sweeper cutaway, what engine oil consists of, plus the many roles of a bulldozer.



32 Road sweepers



34 Jet surfing



36 Bulldozers

- 28 Extreme submarines
- 32 Street sweepers
- 32 Scissor tyre jacks
- 34 Dump valves
- 34 Jet surfboards
- 34 Engine oil
- 36 Brutal bulldozers



How do manned submersibles safely descend to the deadly depths of the oceanic trenches?

EXTREME SUBMARINES



On 26 March 2012, Hollywood film director James Cameron ascended from the deepest part of the deepest oceanic rift in the world: the Mariana Trench, in the western Pacific. He wasn't the first person to reach the abyssal 11-kilometre (6.8-mile)-deep valley in its floor, the Challenger Deep, and the publicity around the event probably had as much to do with the fact that he is such a well-known celebrity as anything else.

Cameron was actually the third person to go there (after Don Walsh and Jacques Piccard's 1960 descent in the Bathyscaphe Trieste), but he was part of the second manned mission to the Challenger Deep and the first person to reach the bottom of the Mariana Trench solo. And to put all that into better perspective, NASA alone has sent 24 men to the Moon, 12 of them actually leaving

their command modules and walking around on its surface, which would have been an impossible feat for this trio of intrepid aquanauts.

So what are the challenges posed by this geological giant, which could swallow Mount Everest and still leave over two kilometres (1.25 miles) of water above its highest peak? The single biggest obstacle for any submersible diving to these depths is the extreme pressure. Because seawater has more mass than air per volume – typically 1,025 kilograms per cubic metre (64 pounds per cubic foot) versus 1.23 kilograms per cubic metre (0.08 pounds per cubic foot), for roughly every ten metres (32 feet) you dive into the ocean, the pressure increases by one standard atmosphere (one bar). So the pressure near the bottom of the Challenger Deep exceeds 1,000 bars, or 1,000 kilograms per square

centimetre (14,500 pounds per square inch), although temperature, tides and other factors mean this varies.

Naturally such extreme pressures would crush us to a pulp, so a manned submersible that visits the Challenger Deep needs to have enormous compressive strength to maintain the habitat inside it, while keeping its human occupants warm and supplying them with breathable air.

Cameron's Deepsea Challenger had a similar structure to the Bathyscaphe Trieste, though its torpedo shape was designed to descend lengthways. At one end is the pilot sphere, the only line of defence against a wall of deadly water. To minimise weight and increase strength, the interior is just 109 centimetres (43 inches) in diameter, while the hull is made of 6.4-centimetre (2.5-inch)-thick steel. The spherical shape of the chamber

DID YOU KNOW? Most of Earth's ocean floors are 6,000m [19,685ft] deep, which is why subs tend to be rated only to this depth

LIFE IN THE TRENCHES

We know very little about life in the deep ocean, but we do know that in the pitch black at the bottom, creatures can thrive. Microbes with the capacity to metabolise the hydrogen sulphide and other compounds that spout from boiling hydrothermal vents form the base of a food chain. In turn this attracts deep-ocean specialised crustaceans, gastropods, worms, eels and more in a place that was, up until the Sixties, thought to be uninhabitable. Incredibly, giant single-cell, amoebic organisms known as xenophyophores are found in their greatest numbers in the oceanic trenches.

Bottom-feeders in the dark regions of the ocean are usually scavengers, feeding off whatever falls from the waters above. But much of the taxa found in the extremes of the deep derive their energy from sources other than the Sun, in an environment that is analogous to those found on other planets in the Solar System. Indeed, extensive studies into these communities has breathed new hope into discovering life elsewhere in the cosmos.



Xenophyophores are giant single-celled organisms that live at great depth, feeding off mineral compounds

© NOAA

makes it much stronger; if it was cylindrical like the rest of the sub, it would need to be three times as thick.

To facilitate its descent, 450 kilograms (1,000 pounds) of steel weights are held on the side by electromagnets. These are dropped when the pilot needs to rise, but in case they don't (thereby marooning the submersible on the ocean floor), a power failure will drop the weights automatically, the support team on the surface can trigger the command themselves and, as a failsafe, a wire that helps connect the weights to the submersible will corrode and snap after 13 hours' exposure to seawater.

In any case, the Deepsea Challenger uses syntactic foam floats, dense enough to withstand the pressure yet lighter than water – these are able to rapidly lift the craft back to the surface in just half the time it took to reach the bottom. ⚙️

The Deepsea Challenger

The essential difference between a submersible and a submarine is that a submarine must be able to recycle its own air and power supply, while a submersible relies on a support craft on the surface. This is why military submarines can go for months at sea, while both the Virgin Oceanic and Deepsea Challenger submersibles can only support their pilots for a day or so at most.

Batteries

Hundreds of small lithium batteries that power the vessel absorb seawater to compensate for battery oil compression.

Thrusters

These control the altitude of the sub, suspending it above the ocean floor or propelling it downward.

Cameras

The four bespoke HD cameras are a tenth of the size of cameras used in previous missions.

Pilot sphere

One pilot and all their equipment, as well as the craft's instruments, are crammed into a 109cm (43in)-wide space.

Air

The pilot sphere is supplied with up to 56 hours of oxygen, while excess carbon dioxide is scrubbed from the air.

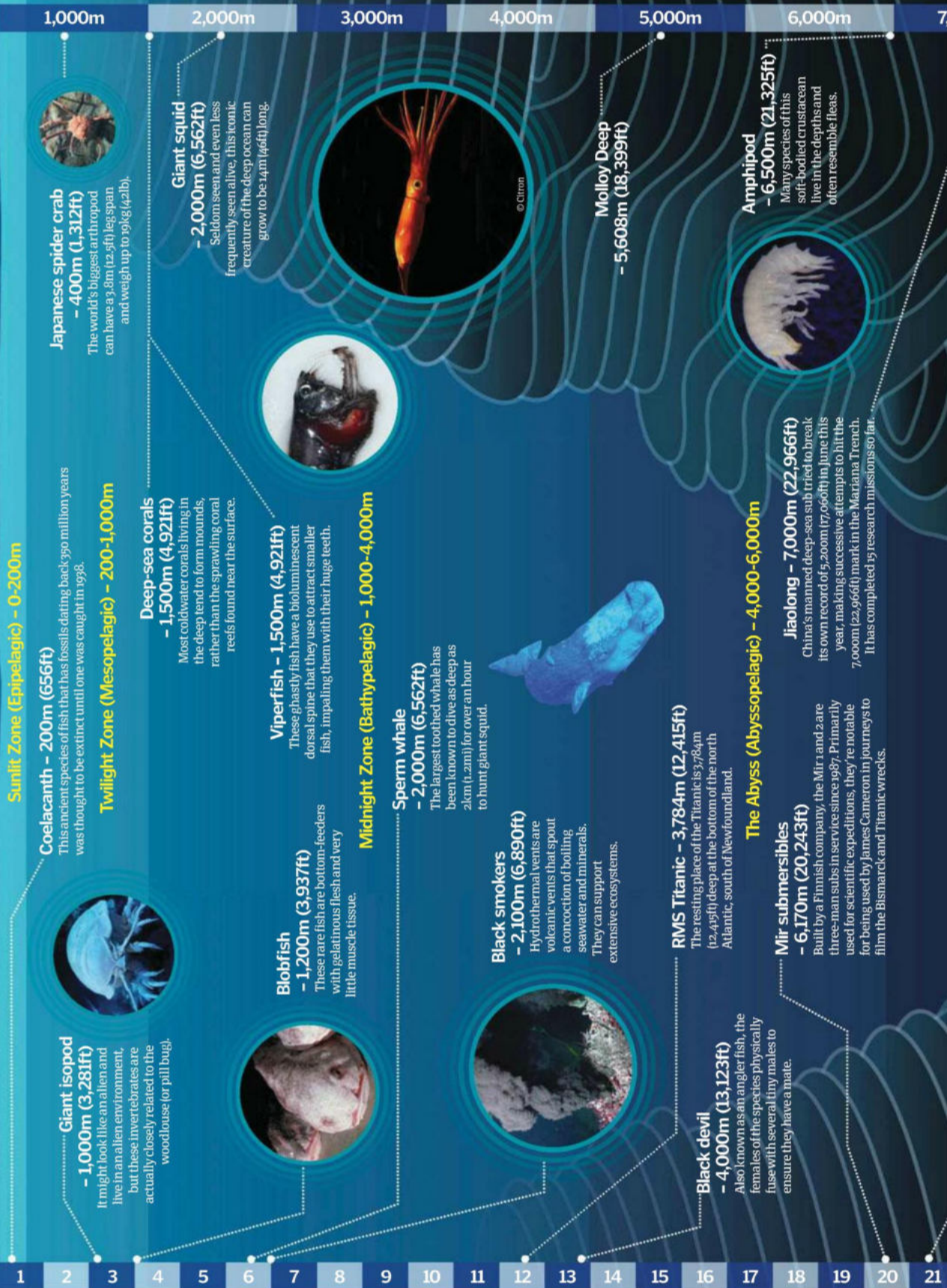
"A manned submersible needs great compressive strength to maintain the habitat inside"



"Hydrothermal vents are volcanic vents that spout a concoction of boiling seawater and minerals"

Taking the plunge

From the shallows to the murky depths, what can deep-sea subs expect to see on the way down?



The world's first proven submersible was designed by William Bourne and built by Cornelius Drebbel in the early-17th century (circa 1620). It was propelled a few feet underwater by oars.

DID YOU KNOW? Because of the immense pressure, water doesn't boil in black smokers until it reaches up to 400°C [752°F]



Unless credited otherwise, all images © NOAA

VIRGIN OCEANIC

Virgin Oceanic plans to launch an even more ambitious craft into the Mariana Trench. It too will be a one-man submersible but made of 3,690 kilograms (over 8,000 pounds) of carbon fibre and titanium. It's supported from the surface by the Virgin Oceanic Super Catamaran, adapted from Steven Fossett's racing catamaran, the Cheyenne. Virgin Oceanic's version is a gigantic 38.1 metres (125 feet) long and 48.7 metres (160 feet) to the tip of its mast. It can lower the sub into the water through a hole in the deck of one hull, while the other hull serves as a galley for the 12-man crew.

The sub is designed to incorporate hydroplanes (aquatic wings) that will allow it to move across up to ten kilometres (6.2 miles) of ocean floor, with a large quartz viewing dome capable of withstanding nearly 6 million kilograms (13 million pounds) of pressure. On its own dive into the Mariana Trench later in 2012, this vessel will be piloted by someone equally as famous as James Cameron: Sir Richard Branson.





"Once the rubbish is within the refuse hold, it is often exposed to a shaking unit"

The clean machine

Check out this cutaway to see how road sweepers gather and filter rubbish



Brooms

Metal wire brooms surrounded by vacuumised chambers help draw rubbish to the side of the sweeper into the mid-centre of the vehicle, where it's drawn up into the refuse hold.

Escalator

The escalator carries the gathered litter upwards to the top-rear of the refuse hold, where it is deposited for later extraction and processing.

Refuse hold

The refuse hold is substantial and is equipped with a shaker to loosen particulate dust and debris from rubbish for processing by the sweeper's filtration system.

Filtering system

A series of fans, meshes, vibrators and hoppers designed to separate and trap fine dust, which is a primary source of water pollution. Filtered air is then expelled back into the atmosphere.

Roller brush

The rear tubular roller brush gathers up large-scale refuse and deposits it onto a central elevator. It is surrounded by a vacuumised chamber that sucks up finer particulate dirt.

Mechanised street sweepers explained

Discover how these vehicles pick up and process rubbish, with the aim of keeping our roads clean



Mechanical street sweepers today are usually large cab-over trucks equipped with a specialised cleaning module. These modules tidy up our roads using a series of rollers, brooms, sprays, filters and vacuums, combining these tools to quickly gather physical litter and process particulate dirt.

The two main types of sweeper are characterised as wet and dry units, the former installed with a large water tank and sprayers to help loosen caked-in grime, and the latter relying solely on a set of rollers and brushes. Key to both variants, however, is a series of vacuumised chambers that surround the vehicles' litter collection units.

These vacuums – commonly positioned around a sweeper's rear roller brush and side-mounted brooms – draw both rubbish and fine particulate matter into a refuse hold and filtering system, supporting the physical gatherers. This action can be likened to that of an everyday household vacuum cleaner.

Once the rubbish is within the refuse hold, it is often exposed to a shaking unit, which separates further debris particles. These are sent, along with directly sucked-up dirt, into a filtering system. At this stage, a series of fans, filters and hoppers extracts the dust from the internal dirty air, traps and stores it for later disposal, and then expels the processed clean air back out into the environment.



How do scissor jacks lift cars?

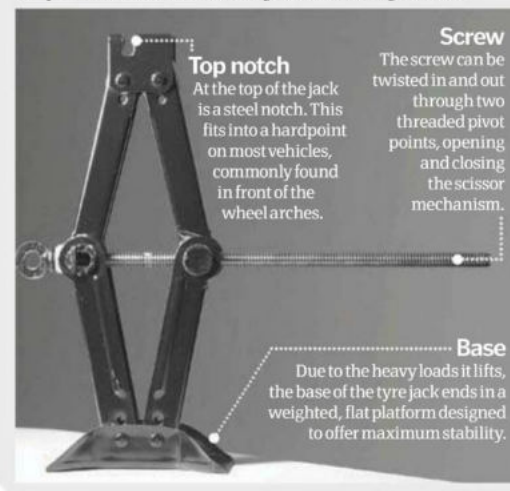
How these humble-looking devices prop up heavy vehicles



There are two main kinds of car jack: those operated by screw and those operated by hydraulics. For standard road vehicles, the screw type is most common, often coming in the form of a scissor jack. Their popularity is a result of their ability to generate a great mechanical advantage – ie a large force amplification – from a manually operated arm tool.

These jacks work by using a two-piece mechanism – similar to those found on extending bathroom mirrors – in partnership with a self-locking central screw. Combined, these elements not only enable a vehicle to be lifted through the extension of the scissor mechanism, but also to be held in place by the resistive force of the screw, which without the jack would instantly collapse.

The central screw is also how the jack is operated, with an end-mounted circular ring designed to accept a large Allen key-shaped metal arm. When inserted and turned clockwise this arm drives the screw through the scissor mechanism's central pivot points' thread, elongating the jack and, thus, raising the vehicle. In contrast, rotating the screw counter-clockwise unthreads the screw, shortening the jack and, in turn, lowering the car to the ground.



Top notch

At the top of the jack is a steel notch. This fits into a hardpoint on most vehicles, commonly found in front of the wheel arches.

Screw

The screw can be twisted in and out through two threaded pivot points, opening and closing the scissor mechanism.

Base

Due to the heavy loads it lifts, the base of the tyre jack ends in a weighted, flat platform designed to offer maximum stability.

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"The WaveJet Pod works by drawing water into a pair of aluminium impellers via two metal grilles"

What is engine oil?

What exactly does this lubricant consist of and why can't most vehicles function without it?



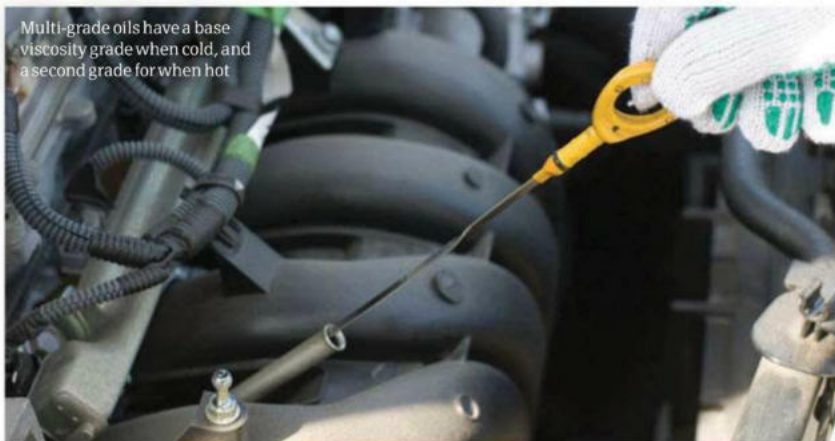
Engine, or motor, oil is designed to lubricate the inner components of internal combustion engines, as well as to protect them against corrosion and keep them cool while in use.

It's made from two main elements: base stock and additives. The base stock commonly makes up 95 per cent of the solution and is either made from petroleum, synthetic chemicals or a mixture of the two. The base stock is responsible for lubricating an engine's moving parts and removing built-up heat. The additives, meanwhile, account for roughly five per cent of the oil and it is these chemicals that are responsible for finely controlling oil viscosity and lubricity, as well as protecting engine parts against wear. For example, zinc

dialkyldithiophosphate (ZDDP) is a frequently used additive for preventing wear, while magnesium sulphonates help the oil to break down impurities and engine sludge.

Engine oils are rated by their grade and viscosity. Any oil can either be single-grade, with a set viscosity level, or multi-grade in which the oil can act at two different viscosities depending on its temperature. The latter is most prevalent today, to cater for vehicles used all year round in various conditions. The flow-rate of both single- and multi-grade oils is measured on a viscosity grade scale, which includes 11 grades ranging from 0 to 60. Lower-ranked oils are thicker than higher-ranked ones, making them more suitable to cold environments, and vice versa. *

Multi-grade oils have a base viscosity grade when cold, and a second grade for when hot



A piston-type dump valve as commonly used in motorsport vehicles

© Allison

Dump valves explained

How do these car parts help to relieve the strain in an engine?



A dump valve is designed to release unwanted pressure in a turbocharged car engine – pressure that, if left unchecked, would quickly cause great damage. The valve itself resembles a metallic tubular drum and can usually be found between the intercooler and the air inlet hose to a turbocharger.

How the system works depends on the kind of dump valve, but both types seek to negate the effect of compressor surge, a process where the action of the throttle plate closing on a turbocharged engine causes the high-pressure air within the intake system to be blocked and also forced back into the compressor. The first type of valve, known as a compressor bypass valve (CBV), is an engine manifold, vacuum-driven device that releases unwanted pressure in the engine's intake system before rerouting it via a hose back to the non-pressurised end of the intake for reuse. These are common in motorsport vehicles.

In contrast, the second type of dump valve, a blow-off valve (BOV), releases the pressurised air via a vent directly into the atmosphere with a loud popping/hissing noise. This type is more frequently used in road vehicles. *

Jet-powered surfboards

How do these surfing systems generate extra thrust for prolonged wave riding?



Jet surfboards are surfboards with an integrated propulsion unit, a system designed to minimise the burden of paddling. The foremost example of these systems today is the WaveJet Pod, an oval-shaped thrust generator that comes pre-installed into a range of surfboards – however, it can also be integrated into standard boards. Once installed, this device allows surfers to travel at over four times the speed of manual paddling.

The WaveJet Pod works by drawing water into a pair of

aluminium impellers via two metal grilles. The impellers, powered by the Pod's internal lithium-ion battery and controlled by the user with a wrist-mounted command centre, then draw the water through their blades and eject it via rear-mounted vents. This process generates roughly nine kilograms-force (20 pounds-force) of thrust – the equivalent to 11.3 kilometres (seven miles) per hour in speed.

The system is recharged by connecting it to a dedicated device, which comes in a watertight briefcase and can fully replenish the Pod in under four hours. *

The WaveJet Pod in context

How this souped-up board can offer surfers a boost

Charging

The Pod's lithium-ion battery is charged via this watertight port.

Materials

The board is made from epoxy resin with an EPS core for lightness and durability. The addition of the WaveJet Pod adds both power and stability while riding.

Grilles

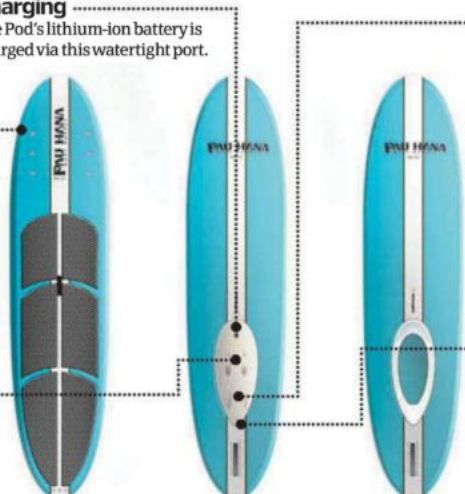
Water is drawn into the Pod through these metal grilles.

Jet vents

Lightweight aluminium impellers generate 9kgf (20lb) of thrust, pushing water out of these two rear vents.

Release

The Pod is removed/secured to the board via a key tool connector at this point.



© WaveJet

Top gun

1 Yves Rossy is an ex-military fighter pilot who flew in the Swiss Air Force. His career saw him fly a number of combat aircraft including Mirage IIIs, F-5 Tiger IIs and Hawker Hunters.

Crossing the Alps

2 In 2008 Rossy flew his wing over the Swiss Alps mountain range. During his flight he reached a top descent speed of 304km/h (189mph) and an average speed of 200km/h (124mph).

The rain in Spain...

3 In 2009 Rossy tried to cross the Strait of Gibraltar, hoping to be the first person to fly between two continents using a jetwing. Unfortunately, bad weather meant he couldn't land in Spain.

Swiss Army strife

4 While only a rumour, it has been claimed that the Swiss military was so impressed with the jet-powered wing they asked Rossy to share a prototype. However, Jetman refused.

Jetwing vs rally car

5 One of Jetman's most recent outings was on the BBC motoring show *Top Gear*. Here Rossy piloted his latest jetwing in a race between him and a pro driver in a rally car.

DID YOU KNOW? Swiss pilot Yves Rossy is the only person in history to fly with a jetwing

Jetman's jet-propelled wing explained

We break down Yves Rossy's jet-powered personal flying machine that enables him to soar at nearly 200mph



Jetman, aka pilot Yves Rossy, is the world record holder for jet-propelled wing flight, successfully performing a series of jaw-dropping flights at speeds of up to 304 kilometres (189 miles) per hour.

He achieves these feats with his jet-propelled wing, a personal jetpack-style flying machine that is attached to Rossy much like a backpack, via a multi-point harness. The wing is powered by four small-scale jet engines, which are scaled-down replicas of those found on fighter aircraft. The engines burn a kerosene/turbine oil mix and each generates a modest 22 kilograms-force (48.5 pounds-force) of thrust – enough to enable Jetman to sustain low-altitude flight for 10-20 minutes depending on his speed and atmospheric conditions.

The wing itself is made from a series of carbon-fibre panels, which are bolted together to form a two-metre (6.6-foot)-wide

main body. Attached to this are the wing's four jet engines as well as the fuel tanks, which sit either side of Rossy who is positioned at the top-centre of the aircraft.

Due to the large power and heat generated by the wing's engines, Rossy himself must wear a specially designed wing-suit when piloting it. This suit is designed to be heavily heat resistant and works in partnership with a carbon-fibre heat shield installed around the vehicle's exhaust tail.

The jetwing is controlled by a combination of Jetman's own head, arm and leg movements, and an engine throttle. Together, these enable Rossy to climb, descend and sweep left and right gracefully, without spinning out of control. However, in the event that a mechanical failure or other emergency were to occur, the wing can be detached and both Rossy and the device can land safely using parachutes.

The statistics...



Jetman's jet-powered wing

Span:	2m (6.6ft)
Weight:	55kg (121lb)
Powerplant:	4 x Jet-Cat P200
Fuel:	Kerosene
Ascent speed:	180km/h (111mph)
Cruise speed:	200km/h (124mph)
Descent speed:	304km/h (189mph)
Canopy:	PD Spectra 230
Parachute:	Legend R



Body

The wing's body is made from a number of carbon-fibre panels. Rossy can change direction through a series of body movements.

Parachutes

For landings or emergencies, two parachutes are installed in the body of the wing and on Rossy himself, which can be deployed manually or automatically.

Engines

An array of four Jet-Cat P200 jet engines deliver 22kgf (48.5lbf) of thrust each, granting cruise speeds of 200km/h (124mph).

Harness

The harness, which holds the wing tightly to Rossy's back, is equipped with a cutaway system plus an automatic engine shut-down mechanism.

Fuel

The machine's engines run primarily on kerosene. However, a small quantity (approximately five per cent) of turbine oil is added to provide lubrication.

"The wing itself is made from a series of carbon-fibre panels"

© Yves Rossy, Andre Berner

"A bulldozer consists of many parts, but the main three are its blade, tracks and ripper"

Brutal bulldozers

Designed to move or demolish all in their path, these powerful vehicles are used by builders, farmers and even soldiers



Key to how a bulldozer operates is its large powerful engine and tracks, which combined allow the machine to push, pull and carry many-ton loads day in, day out. This is because the tracks generate excellent ground hold and weight distribution, preventing the bulldozer from becoming stuck or slipping on difficult terrain. This ability, in partnership with the vast amount of torque generated by the vehicle's diesel engine and torque divider, allows substantial loads to be manipulated with ease – indeed, modern bulldozers can pull tanks that weigh over 70 tons!

A bulldozer consists of many parts, but the three most noteworthy are its blade, tracks and ripper. Affixed to the front of the vehicle by a push frame, the blade is the heavy metal plate that's used to push objects and scoop up large quantities of material such as sand and earth. This element is usually one of three designs: an S blade, which is short and has no lateral curve and side wings; a U blade, which is tall and very curved with pronounced side wings that can gather more material; or an S-U blade, which is a combination of the other two types.

The tracks of a bulldozer also come in a variety of designs, though oval and triangle arrays are most common. A popular track system today is Caterpillar's triangular high-drive system, which is designed to generate a higher cab position for the driver – granting them better visibility during operation. This configuration also enhances the vehicle's balance and traction across all applications. For example, high-drive bulldozers deliver equal amounts of stability and grip no matter whether they are pushing, pulling or carrying their colossal loads.

The last key part is the bulldozer's ripper. This is a tool attached to the rear of the vehicle that's powered by a hydraulic cylinder. The ripper usually resembles a toothed blade – or series of toothed blades – and is used to break up hard ground so it can be scooped up or pushed by the blade. Rippers are designed with replaceable tungsten steel alloy tips to ensure they remain razor sharp. In addition, rippers can be modified to perform other tasks. A case in point are stump-buster rippers, which are sharp, horizontally mounted rear blades used specifically to split and shred tree stumps.

Due to their extreme power and performance, bulldozers have increasingly been called into military service, if greatly adapted for warzones. Modifications include armour plating, blast shields, bulletproof cab glass, machine guns and enhanced communication systems with GPS. A good example is the Caterpillar D9R (nicknamed Doobi – Hebrew for 'teddy bear'), which has been used by the Israel Defense Forces (IDF) for several decades. 🌟

Bulldozer breakdown

How It Works takes a closer look at the key components of a modern bulldozer

Ripper

A sharp metal-toothed feature that is driven into the ground by a hydraulic cylinder in order to break it up for easier excavation.



Push frame

A lengthwise connector between the bulldozer's frame and blade. It ensures the blade remains rigidly fixed during operation.

5 TOP FACTS

BULLDOZERS

Crawler

1 The term bulldozer was originally an engineering term to describe a horizontal forging press. It was not until the Thirties that the name was linked to the modern-day crawler vehicle.

Tractor roots

2 The first bulldozers were not purpose built but modified farm tractors. In the Twenties, however, purpose-built machines with tracks started to be manufactured and sold.

Caterpillar

3 The largest manufacturer of bulldozers is US company Caterpillar. Competitors include Komatsu, JCB and John Deere, which all produce vehicles of various sizes and specifications.

Calfdozer

4 While the majority of bulldozers are massive, more compact variants are produced for urban use where space is limited. These miniature versions are often called calfdozers.

Battle bulldozer

5 The most famous example of a military bulldozer is the Israel Defense Forces' Caterpillar D9R, named Doobi. This machine has been rigged out to demolish structures while under fire.

DID YOU KNOW? In the early-Thirties bulldozers were commonly referred to as bull graders

Cab

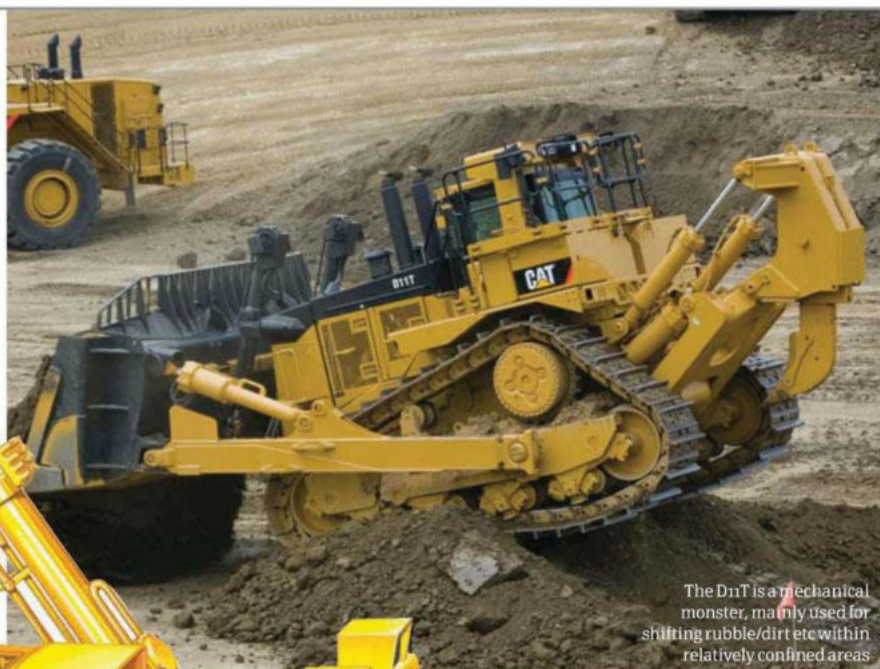
The command centre of the vehicle, the cab is the area where the driver sits and controls its movement, blade and ripper device.

Exhaust pipe

A large exhaust pipe through which the bulldozer's diesel engine can expel combustion gases.

Lift cylinder

One of two hydraulic lifting cylinders that allow the blade to lift vast quantities of excavated material.



The D11T is a mechanical monster, mainly used for shifting rubble/dirt etc within relatively confined areas

© Shaun Greiner

Blade

A concave metal shield used by the bulldozer to push, scoop and destroy any material in front of it. It's powered by twin hydraulic cylinders.

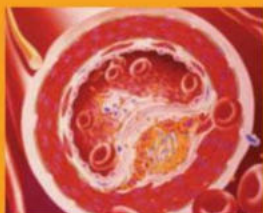
© JKH Images

Tracks

A linked array of metal plates that runs over a series of wheels, the tracks ensure the bulldozer generates maximum traction for pushing/pulling.

Cutting edge

The bottom part of the bulldozer's blade that makes frequent contact with the ground. Due to heavy wear, it's designed as a replaceable part.



Welcome to... SCIENCE

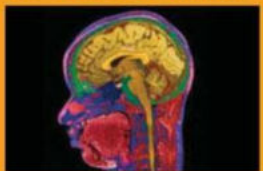
Whether it's spiders, heights or needles, or something more unusual, everyone is scared of something - but how does fear rule our bodies? Also, learn how sound waves alone can lift objects, why natural rubber is toughened for tyres, and how scans can reveal our thoughts.



42 Tattoo removal



45 States of matter



46 Mind reading

- 38 The science of fear
- 42 Cholesterol
- 42 Tattoo removal
- 42 Vulcanisation
- 44 Acoustic levitation
- 44 Skin grafts
- 45 States of matter
- 46 Imaging our thoughts



LEARN MORE



THE SCIENCE OF FEAR

If your body is a vessel, fear is an all-hands-on-deck red alert



At the first sign of danger, your inner Kirk arms photon torpedoes, raises the shields and dispatches the crew to battle stations - so to speak... You feel the heightened alert as a racing heart, a surge of energy and a twisting stomach. In the right circumstances - on rollercoasters etc - the feeling can be a rush, but it's generally a distinctly unpleasant experience. So why do our brains subject us to it?

Simply put, fear keeps us alive. While removing your fear system might make public speaking more fun, it would also make you easy prey. When scientists liberated rats of their brains' fear centre, the subjects happily snuggled up to cats. In the unpredictable, predator-filled world of our ancestors (both human and pre-human), fear - a hair-trigger system that equips you to avoid, fight or flee danger - was essential to surviving long enough to make terrified babies that would carry on your genetic material. In other words, natural selection

has assured that we and just about every other animal are primed to be afraid, in some form or another. More specifically, we're primed to be afraid *fast*. You might be able to logically deduce that you should run from a charging rhinoceros, but when a rhino's actually barrelling towards you, there's no time for logic. That's why your fear system doesn't wait around for you to register what's going on consciously.

When something unexpected happens - a sudden bang, for instance - the information initially goes to your amygdalae, twin almond-shaped lobes near your ears that are critical to developing emotions. The amygdala associates certain sights, sounds and smells with danger. If it receives information that fits the profile of one of these dangers - a coiled creature on the ground, for example - the amygdala instructs your hypothalamus to trigger the fight-or-flight response to prepare your body to deal with the threat. Through your central nervous system and bloodstream, your

Heart rate rises

The heart beats faster and boosts the force of contractions, which increases the rate of blood flow to the muscles.

Liver secretes glucose

Adrenaline triggers the liver to convert glycogen into glucose, the body's energy supply. This energy is then made readily available to the major muscles/organs.

Adrenal gland produces hormones (not shown)

The adrenal medulla, within the adrenal gland on top of the kidney, releases the hormones adrenaline (epinephrine) and noradrenaline (norepinephrine), which prod organs and muscles into action or inaction, respectively.

Kidney slows urine production (not shown)

Producing bodily waste is deemed an unnecessary drain on energy.

Intestines slow down digestion of food

In extreme cases, the body will clear the digestive tract altogether, through vomiting or defecation.

Bladder sphincter tightens

The bladder relaxes and the sphincter tightens as part of shutting off unnecessary systems.

Superhuman

1 Normally, you can tap into about 65 per cent of the available energy in your muscles. Fear unlocks the deficit, enabling people in emergencies to often perform inexplicable feats.

Neurosis

2 One theory from a study at Tel Aviv University, Israel, is that people who have subpar danger-detection abilities overcompensate by being generally fearful/anxious.

Fearless mum

3 A 40-something mum known as SM lost her amygdalae to a degenerative disease. With no sense of fear, she readily approaches muggers, snakes and other things that she knows intellectually to be dangerous.

Fear stinks

4 The legendary smell of fear is for real. A 2008 Stony Brook University study found that scared people give off pheromones in their sweat that can trigger fear in others.

Scared sick

5 One of the non-essential systems fear puts on hold is the immune system. As a result, regular fear and anxiety can increase your susceptibility to disease.

DID YOU KNOW? At least one person in ten experiences a panic attack now and then, typically triggered by a stressful event

Automatic responses

The autonomic nervous system (ANS) controls the various operations your body handles without conscious thought, including breathing, digesting, pumping blood and arousal. One of its three parts, the sympathetic nervous system, helps activate the fight-or-flight response of fear. When your amygdala registers a potential danger, it notifies your hypothalamus, which, via the sympathetic nervous system, primes your smooth muscles and triggers the release of the hormones adrenaline (epinephrine) and noradrenaline (norepinephrine) that speed up certain parts of your body and slow down others. Along with a flood of 30 more hormones triggered by the pituitary gland, the response energises your body for action and shuts down any activities that won't help you fight or escape (eg digestion).

Vision changes

Your pupils dilate to bring in maximum visual information.

Bronchial tubes dilate

The bronchi leading to your lungs dilate to maximise oxygen intake.

"While removing your fear system might make public speaking more fun, it would also make you easy prey"

Mouth dries up

The autonomic nervous system shuts down saliva production, an aid to food digestion that's deemed unnecessary in an emergency situation.

Trachea stays open

A body in action needs lots of oxygen, so the air passageway must remain wide open.

Fight, flight and beyond

The fight-or-flight response, which was first identified by Harvard psychiatrist Walter Cannon in 1915, is a set of physical reactions you experience when you're afraid. While the things that trigger the response vary based on your personal experience, the response itself is hard-wired into your body, activated when your autonomic nervous system and your pituitary gland ready your body to face danger.

In recent years, some scientists have proposed updating the term to 'freeze, flight, fight or fright' to fit the current understanding of how the response plays out. When you detect a predator, which is likely to hone in on motion, the instinctual first response is actually to freeze, with the hope it passes you by. The second-best option is fleeing the scene. Only when you're attacked is fighting a good bet. Finally, playing dead through immobility - dubbed 'fright' - may lead the predator to loosen its grip enough to make an escape attempt.

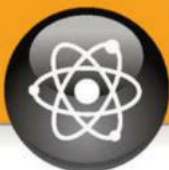


Stomach slows digestive enzyme production

To conserve energy, your body postpones digestion.

Blood vessels constrict or dilate

Blood vessels for major muscle groups dilate, to allow maximum blood flow, while blood vessels for the skin, extremities and other areas constrict, conserving blood.



"We evolved with the healthy fears of our primitive ancestors hard-coded into our brains"

hypothalamus floods your body with hormones that energise you for action and shut down any systems that are deemed non-essential. While the amygdala has been rallying the troops, other parts of your higher brain have been considering the available information and relevant past experiences to determine what's really going on and, ultimately, decide which course of action to take.

But how does your subconscious brain know what to fear in the first place? When you experience pain, the amygdala begins to associate sights and sounds you experienced with danger. If you repeatedly couple pain and a specific sight or sound, you can programme somebody to be afraid of just about anything. In the Twenties, psychologist John Watson conditioned the 11-month-old Little Albert to fear rats by

smashing a cymbal behind his head every time he saw one. Watson did such a good job that Albert ended up fearing a variety of fluffy animals, and Santa Claus's beard to boot! Interestingly, this trick also works when we see somebody else experiencing pain connected to a stimulus.

Research suggests that it takes much less exposure to develop a fear of certain things, like snakes and heights, than others, like rainbows and lollipops. According to this theory, we evolved with the healthy fears of our primitive ancestors hard-coded into our brains, primed for activation from an early age. So, essentially, we come with a pre-programmed danger response system, a starter set of universal things to fear, along with the capacity to be scared of just about anything else. The rest is up to us. ☼

Stimulus

You ignore a lot of the sights, sounds and smells your senses pick up, but something unexpected, such as a slithering snake, gets bumped to the top of the brain's hierarchy.

Eyes

Your eyes take in an immense amount of raw information, but none of it registers until your brain interprets it.

Phobias: when fear gets out of control

What are these irrational fears and how are they commonly treated?

According to researchers at Boston University's Center for Anxiety, 11 per cent of us have a phobia – an extreme, irrational fear of some object or situation. Specific phobias may begin with a traumatic event, experienced directly or observed, but this isn't actually the norm. Some phobias result from a person having an unrelated panic attack, brought on by general stress, in the presence of the object or situation. Others develop simply from hearing about dangers or being close to someone else with a fear.

No matter the source, ongoing anxiety and avoidance only serve to reinforce the phobia. This anxiety may be more about the reaction to the fear than the actual danger itself. Phobias do

frequently run in families, possibly due to a combination of genetic predisposition and a shared environment.

The leading phobia treatment is exposure therapy, which encompasses multiple techniques. In systematic desensitisation, patients learn deep relaxation techniques and then experience the objects or situations they fear while in a relaxed state. Flooding, in contrast, involves immersing the patient in exposure to the feared object or situation, with no preparation. The notion is that enough exposure shows the feared stimuli to be harmless. In modelling, the therapist confronts the fear, so that the patient will 'unlearn' the fear vicariously.

The face of fear

The components of a fearful face and body – eg the pulled back mouth, wide eyes, raised and scrunched eyebrows and tensed body – appear across different cultures, and never have to be taught. Many scientists believe this outward display of fear is an ingrained, universal expression that lets us instantly communicate to others that we've picked up on a nearby threat. In fact, fearful expressions may serve to cause instant fear in others. Through this form of emotional contagion, an entire group can get mobilised for fight or flight without each individual member having to pick up on the source of danger independently.



10 bizarre phobias Because arachnophobia is just so passé...



PTERONOPHOBIA - Being tickled with feathers



PARASKEVEDEKATRIAPHOBIA - Friday the 13th



ARACHIBUTYROPHOBIA - Peanut butter sticking to the roof of your mouth



CATHISOPHOBIA - Sitting down



AUTOMATONOPHOBIA - Humanoid figures/dummies



1. RASH REACTION

Sea cucumber

Some of these species can eject most of their digestive system and other organs, confusing predators while they escape. Everything eventually regenerates.



2. RASHER REACTION

Hairy frog

A hairy frog species in Cameroon will break its own bones to extend a sharp claw-like bone straight through its toe pad – apparently in self-defence.



3. RASHEST REACTION

Malaysian carpenter ant

Under duress, the soldier class of a Malaysian ant species will contract abdominal muscles to explode itself, covering its attackers with a sticky toxin.

DID YOU KNOW? Numerous studies have shown that fear is a powerful aphrodisiac for some people

The fear response: deciding to be afraid

Our brains seem to assess danger instantly, but fear actually involves a multi-step, sophisticated process. The analysis happens along two paths. In the quicker 'low road', your amygdala registers a potential danger and begins the fight-or-flight response. In the slower but more considered 'high road', your cortex pieces together the bigger picture.

A false alarm highlights the difference between the two paths. When you see a snake by your feet and your heart skips, that's your amygdala sounding the alarm. When you realise it's just a garden hose and relax, your hippocampus cancels the alert. The logic is sound: better to lose your dignity because of a false positive than lose your leg because of a false negative.

Hypothalamus

When the amygdala identifies a potential danger, the hypothalamus triggers the autonomic nervous system and adrenal-cortical system to initiate the fight-or-flight response.

Thalamus

The thalamus is like a dispatcher, directing sensory information to the appropriate parts of the brain. It immediately passes potential danger signs on to the amygdalae and the sensory cortex.

Visual cortex

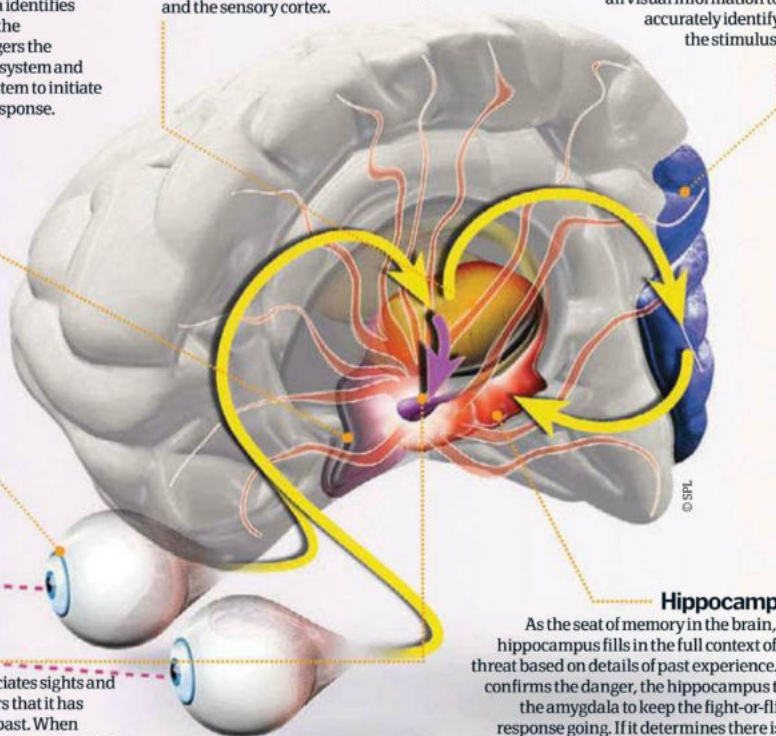
The occipital lobe works to make sense of what we see. In the fear response, it considers all visual information to accurately identify the stimulus.

Hippocampus

As the seat of memory in the brain, the hippocampus fills in the full context of the threat based on details of past experience. If it confirms the danger, the hippocampus tells the amygdala to keep the fight-or-flight response going. If it determines there is no risk, it tells the amygdala to shut it down.

Amygdala

The amygdala associates sights and sounds with dangers that it has experienced in the past. When something matches a known danger, it notifies the hypothalamus.



Reacting to fear

Why do we sweat?

Sweat is your built-in air conditioner: the evaporating water on your skin cools you down. When afraid, your body triggers the cooling system in anticipation of physical exertion.

Why do our knees knock?

Knocking knees is a side-effect of increased blood flow to your muscles. If you don't start fleeing, the greatly increased muscle tension in your legs can make them shake uncontrollably.

Why do we shiver?

Blood vessels for the skin constrict to conserve maximum blood flow for the major muscle groups. Reduced blood flow to the skin has a chilling effect, which can trigger the shivering reaction, shaking muscles to generate heat.

Why do we get goose bumps?

Adrenaline causes the muscles in our skin to contract, raising the hairs on our arms to create goose bumps. This doesn't do modern humans much good, but it would have made our furrier ancestors puff up, both to conserve heat and to make them appear bigger to attackers.

Why do our heart rates increase?

When you're ready to push your muscles to the limit to fight off a foe or flee, you need to provide them with as much blood as you can. You ratchet up your blood pump – ie your heart – to maximise the blood supply throughout the body.

Why do our pupils dilate?

During the fight-or-flight response, your pupils dilate, shifting your vision to a heightened, wider view of your surroundings, gathering as much information as it can about the situation.

Why do we breathe faster and deeper when scared?

Increased blood flow isn't much good unless the blood is sufficiently oxygenated. Respiration steps up a gear to bring in the oxygen you need.

Why do we scream?

The prevailing theory is that screaming doubles as a call for help from others and as a way to intimidate or scare off the threat.



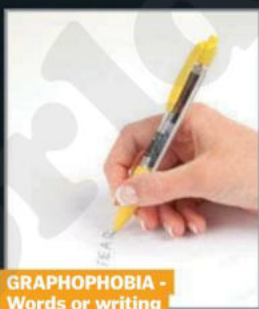
AGYROPHOBIA - Crossing the street



PEDOPHOBIA - Babies and children



POGONOPHOBIA - Beards



GRAPHOPHOBIA - Words or writing



APEIROPHOBIA - Infinity



"Cholesterol itself isn't unhealthy – in fact, you wouldn't be able to live without it"

Cholesterol / Tattoo removal / Vulcanising rubber



Artery wall

Wear and tear comes with age, and a diet high in saturated fat can lead to fatty buildup on artery walls.

Plaque

Artery walls thicken with further deposits of cholesterol and connective tissue, which can lead to a deadly blockage.

Blood

Restriction of blood flow in the arteries can lead to angina, strokes and heart attacks.

Is cholesterol bad for you?

Is this substance as evil as we hear?



Cholesterol is a fatty molecule in the blood and, generally speaking, having too much is bad: it can stick to the walls of your arteries and increase the risk of heart disease. Most foods, with the exception of offal, eggs and shellfish, don't contain any cholesterol, but many contain saturated fats, which are turned into cholesterol by the liver. However, cholesterol itself isn't unhealthy – in fact, you wouldn't be able to live without it. The body uses cholesterol as a kind of padding, coating the outer membranes of all our cells and insulating nerve fibres, helping signals travel properly to and from the brain. It's also a fundamental part of the endocrine system, as all steroid hormones (eg oestrogen) are synthesised from cholesterol. A good diet and regular exercise can keep cholesterol within a healthy range for most people.

How are unwanted tattoos removed?

Thanks to advances in technology, tattoos can now be erased using some specialised tools



Today tattoos are usually removed with high-powered lasers. Lasers are used as they allow the tattoo's ink pigment to be fragmented to the extent that it can be shed by a human's natural skin growth and healing processes. The reason the ink has to be acted upon with a high-powered laser is due to its relatively deep level in the skin's dermis; conventional medical lasers aren't of sufficient strength. Additionally, the droplets of pigment are far too large to be broken down chemically.

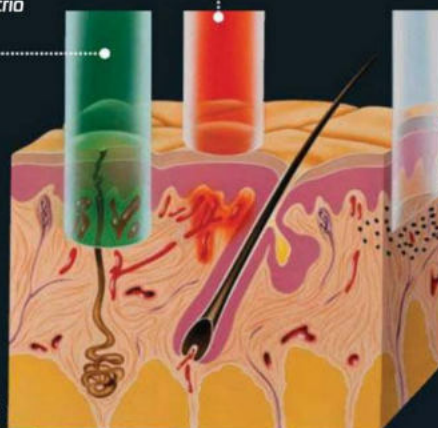
The most common type of high-powered tattoo laser system used today is the Q-switched variety. These lasers differ to standard ones in two key ways. First, they produce pulses of laser light rather than a continuous beam and, second, these pulses have an extremely high peak power (in the gigawatt range). When used on a person's skin, the tattoo's ink pigments can be 'flushed' with a very controlled strength laser pulse over a short period of time, fragmenting the ink instantly and causing minimal temporary scarring to the skin.

Laser power

Tattoo removal lasers differ to other types, as shown by this trio

Argon laser

Argon lasers penetrate the epidermis (upper layer of skin) and can be used to treat haemangioma-type conditions (a form of benign tumour) that can form here.



Tunable dye laser

Tunable dye lasers are generally too weak to penetrate the skin at all. They are commonly found in laser pens.

Carbon dioxide laser

The carbon dioxide laser penetrates the epidermis down to the dermis, allowing the fracturing and removal of tattoo pigments deep in the skin.

Vulcanisation explained

Vulcanised rubber is an incredibly versatile and useful material, but how is it manufactured?



Vulcanisation is a chemical process that converts natural rubber into a tougher, more durable form. It achieves this through the addition of numerous curatives – substances that can enhance a material from its organic state – including sulphur, peroxides and acetoxysilane.

These curatives work by modifying rubber's structural form, adding numerous strengthening crosslinks between its individual polymer chains. This transforms rubber and similar materials from sticky,

easily deformable substances into materials that, while still pliable, are far more resistant to wear.

Focusing on the most common curative, sulphur, the vulcanisation process works as follows in the creation of a typical car tyre. First natural rubber compounds are harvested and combined with sulphur and a variety of additives. These additives include accelerators, such as vulcafor, as well as antidegradants, such as paraffin waxes. The accelerators act both to speed up the crosslink creation process and also

improve the quality and number of crosslinks between the rubber's polymer strains. Antidegradants, meanwhile, prevent the rubber breaking down during the intense vulcanisation process.

Next, the mixture is dumped into a compression mould, which in this case is tyre-shaped. The mould is then 'cooked' in a pressurised oven for about ten minutes at 170 degrees Celsius (338 degrees Fahrenheit). The heat and pressure, in combination with the mixture's composition, catalyse the crosslink process and sustain it at a rapid level. Once cooled, the mould is removed, releasing the base tyre for further processing.





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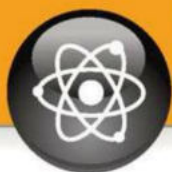


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How skin grafts work

When our body's largest organ is damaged, sometimes it needs a helping hand to heal



Skin grafting is a medical procedure where a portion of skin is removed and stitched onto another part of the body. There are many cosmetic and medical reasons why this might be necessary: serious burns, surgery, tattoo removal and some medical conditions (skin cancer or diabetes, for example) might all necessitate skin grafting.

Autografts are skin grafts taken from the patient's own body, usually the buttocks, neck or back of the arm. Depending on the size of the area that it's removed from, it's then stitched or stapled closed again and the new skin applied to the injured area. Allografts and xenografts, meanwhile – taken from other humans and animals, respectively – are temporary grafts.

But perhaps most interesting is the artificial 'skin' called Integra, made of animal collagen that gives the damaged part an organic scaffolding for new skin to grow into. This is usually used in cases of extreme burns where there isn't enough healthy skin for an autograft.

Gauze

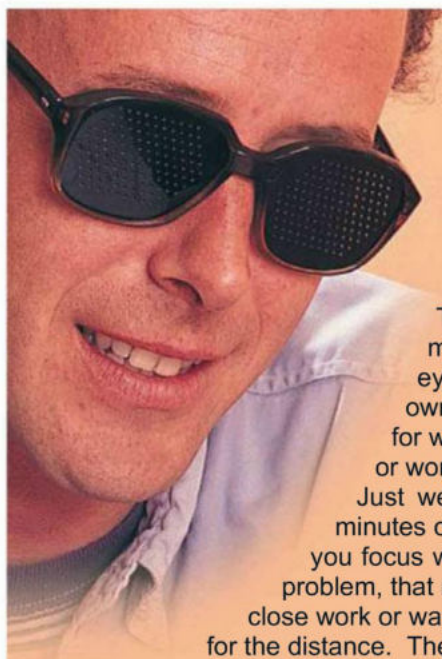
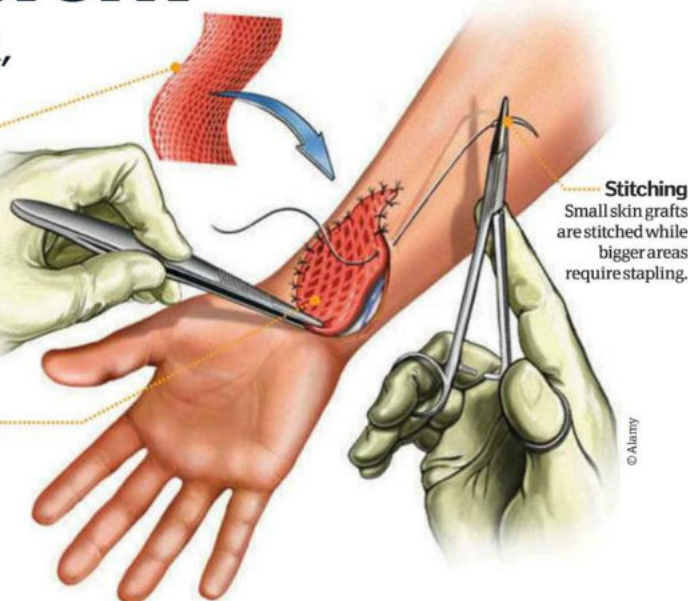
A sterile gauze is applied while the skin attaches and a new blood supply establishes.

Donor skin

The donor skin is removed and then applied to the injured area.

Stitching

Small skin grafts are stitched while bigger areas require stapling.



TRAYNER PINHOLE GLASSES

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without using lenses

Trayner Glasses make it easier for your eyes to focus on their own, so they are great for watching TV, reading or working on computers. Just wear them for 20 minutes or so a day to help you focus where you have a problem, that might be reading for close work or watching sport or a film for the distance. There are several styles to choose from, all made in the UK.

Prices start at £26.

"Already I am really pleased (and amazed) about how they are working. I have been wearing them at least 15 minutes a day, to read and watch TV, and already can read more easily when I am not wearing them."

Anne-Marie Lowe

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Acoustic levitation

How can we lift objects with sound alone?



Acoustic levitation is a method of suspending an object – solid or fluid – in a medium such as air using acoustic radiation pressure. The pressure comes from intense sound waves, which are generated by a transducer (any device that converts one form of energy into another). The waves are then bounced back to cause interference and generate standing, or stationary, waves by a reflector. These waves vibrate back and forth in small segments rather than travelling continuously in one direction; this is key as it's through their stasis that foreign objects can be suspended, hanging between the transducer and reflector. The object levitates as the countering areas of pressure in the standing waves create a kind of pressure equilibrium within the medium, negating the weak force of gravity.

Reflector

This bounces the longitudinal pressure waves directly back towards their original source.

Standing wave

As the original upward sound waves and reflected ones meet, compressions and rarefactions generate stationary waves.

Transducer

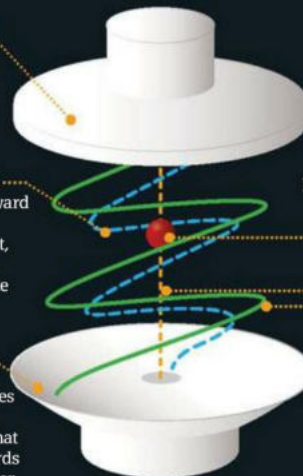
This generates intense sound waves – ie longitudinal pressure waves – that are directed upwards towards the reflector.

Object

While there is no theoretical limit to an object's weight or size, currently only small objects less than a couple of kilograms can be lifted. Water droplets are very common.

Nodes

The standing waves have polarised nodes, areas of minimum pressure, and antinodes, areas of maximum pressure, that cancel each other out.



BOILING POINT OF WATER: **100°C** (212°F)
FREEZING POINT OF WATER: **0°C** (32°F)

BOILING POINT OF OXYGEN: **-183°C** (-297°F)
MELTING POINT OF OXYGEN: **-218°C** (-361°F)

BOILING POINT OF HYDROGEN: **-253°C** (-423°F)
MELTING POINT OF HYDROGEN: **-259°C** (-435°F)

DID YOU KNOW? There are lots of other states of matter aside from the classical three, with more being proposed all the time

States of matter explained

Every object on Earth fits into one or more of these phases, but how do they differ at an atomic level?



Every single object is either a solid, a liquid, a gas or some combination of the three. Some things can move between states, and some can't. Your bookcase is going to remain a solid, for example, but water changes depending on the temperature. But a block of water ice still has the same chemical makeup as water in its gaseous form (steam). So what's the difference? A solid object stays the same shape and takes up the same amount of space, or volume. Liquids take up the same amount of space but adapt to the shape of a container, while gases expand. But to really see the difference, you'd need to check things out at a microscopic level.

If you looked at water in its various phases under a powerful microscope, you would see that the particles in each behave very differently. When it's a vapour (ie steam), the water particles vibrate and are moving very quickly. They're loose and slide freely around with no particular arrangement. In comparison, liquid water particles also vibrate and can move around easily, however they're more tightly packed and don't move anywhere near as fast as their gaseous counterparts. Finally, a block of solid ice doesn't move (that is, the particles still vibrate but not enough to go anywhere). This is because its particles are tightly and rigidly packed together in an ordered pattern.



Glacial ice covers roughly ten per cent of land on Earth and forms seven per cent of the oceans

Phase transitions

No matter what the substance, the names of the state changes, or phase transitions, remain the same. When and how it changes depend on the temperature and pressure, and there can be sub-states (or mesophases) between each one. While the classic progression is from a solid to a liquid and a liquid to a gas, solids can directly transition to gases and vice versa without ever being liquids. Sometimes scientists can determine the difference between substances by establishing their boiling and melting points.

Melting

When a solid turns to a liquid, it's known as melting. It happens when the solid is heated to a temperature referred to as its melting point.



Structure

Liquid

Liquid
In a liquid state, particles are close together but can still move freely.

Solid

Particles in solids are densely packed and barely move at all.



Structure

Freezing

Liquids transition to solids when they reach a specific temperature for the substance known as its freezing point.

Deposition

Also called desublimation, this is when a gas moves directly to a solid without passing through the liquid phase, such as water vapour turning to snow in clouds.

Sublimation

Solids can transition directly to a gas through sublimation; dry ice (solid carbon dioxide) turning to a gas is a classic example of this.

Plasma: the fourth state

The three states of matter – liquid, gas and solid – are considered the 'classical states', because there are other states of matter too. In fact, throughout most of the universe matter exists as plasma, a state that can occur when certain gases are heated, causing some of the particles in the gas to become ionised. Ionisation means that the number of electrons in an atom is no longer equal to the number of protons – then the particles are either positively or negatively charged. So plasma as a whole is neutral, as it's made up of roughly equal numbers of positive and negative ions.

All stars are made predominantly of plasma, and the spaces between the stars and galaxies are full of it. It's also present on Earth in phenomena like lightning and the polar auroras. It can be artificially created too and is used in things like TVs, lasers and neon signs.

Gas

Gases have particles that move quickly and are spaced widely apart.



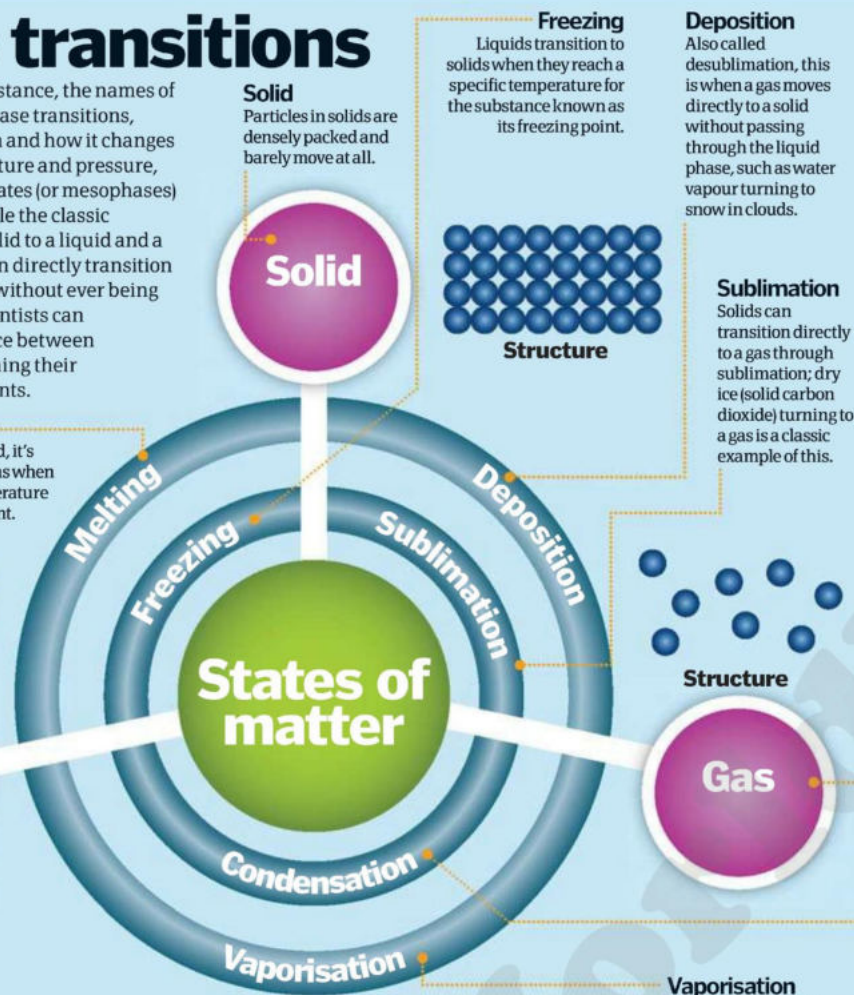
Structure

Gas

Condensation
Condensation is the mesophase between a gas and a liquid.

Vaporisation

Liquids transform into gases through vaporisation.





"Scientists have begun to ascertain which parts of the brain function as we form different thoughts"

IS IT POSSIBLE TO SEE OUR THOUGHTS?

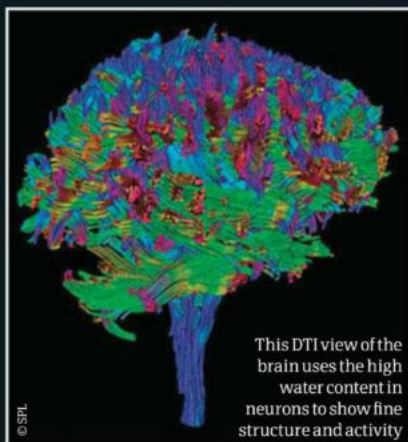
The brain is perhaps the most vital of the body's vital organs, yet in many ways it's also the least understood



At its most simple level, the brain is a series of interconnecting neurons that relay electrical signals between one another.

They are 'all or none' transmitters as, like a computer, they either transmit a signal (like a binary '1') or do not ('0'). Different neurons are receptive to different stimuli, such as light, touch and pain. The complex activity of these neurons is then interpreted by various parts of the brain into useful information. For example, light images from the eye are relayed via the optic nerve to the occipital cortex located in the back of the skull, for interpretation of the scene in front of you.

The generation and interpretation of thoughts is a more complex and less well understood process. In fact, it is a science of its own, where there are many definitions of what a 'thought' is, and of what defines consciousness. In an effort to better define these, doctors, scientists and psychologists have turned to novel imaging techniques to better understand the function of our minds. Research into understanding brain activity and function has led to some of the most advanced imaging techniques available. This has helped to treat conditions such as Alzheimer's dementia, epilepsy and stroke, as well as mental illnesses where there is not necessarily a physical problem within the

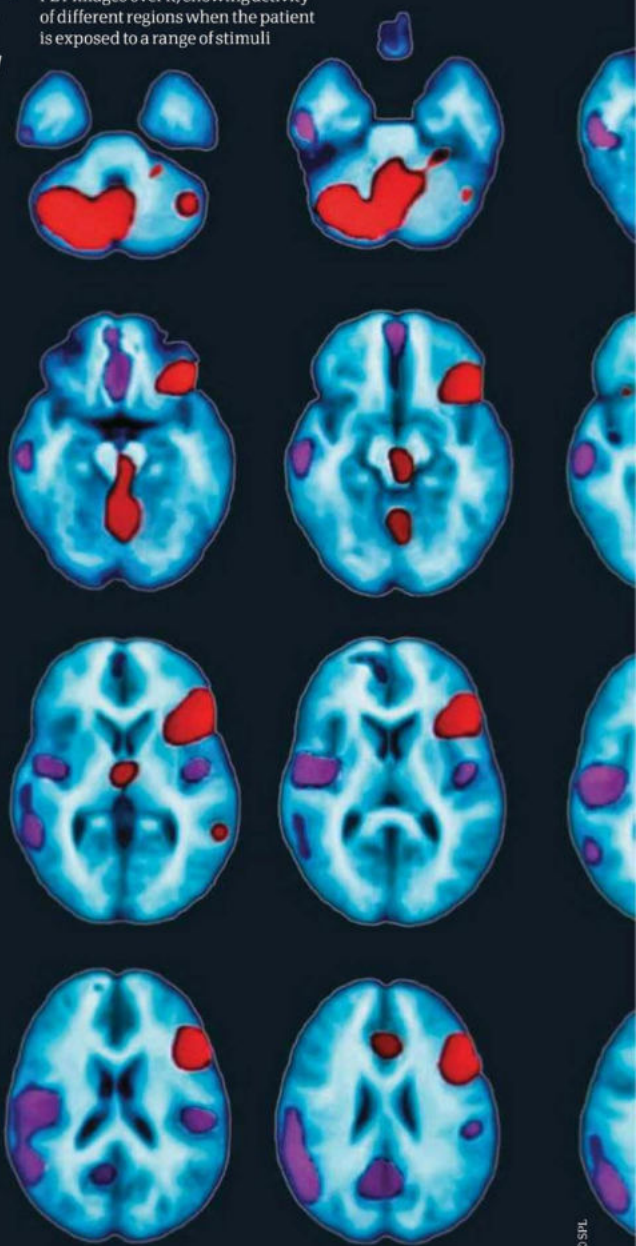


This DTI view of the brain uses the high water content in neurons to show fine structure and activity

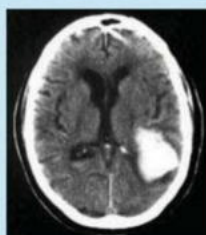
brain. It has also led to benefits for imaging other diseases in other parts of the body, including several forms of cancer.

These advanced imaging techniques include scans to produce images of the anatomical structure of the brain, and interpretation of energy patterns to determine activity or abnormalities. Scientists have started to ascertain which parts of the brain function as we form different thoughts and experience different emotions. This means we are very much on the brink of seeing our own thoughts. 🌟

This CT scan of the brain has fused PET images over it, showing activity of different regions when the patient is exposed to a range of stimuli

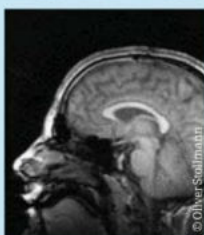


How can we view the brain?



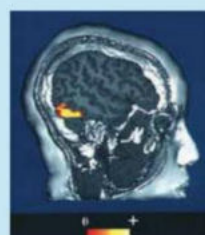
Computed tomography (CT)

This combines multiple X-rays to see the bones of the skull and soft tissue of the brain. It's the most common scan used after trauma, to detect injuries to blood vessels and swelling. However, it can only give a snapshot of the structure so can't capture our thoughts.



Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI)

MRI uses strong magnetic fields to align the protons in water molecules in various body parts. When used in the brain, it allows intricate anatomical detail to be visualised. It has formed the basis of novel techniques to visualise thought processes.



Functional MRI (fMRI)

This form of MRI uses blood-oxygen-level-dependent (BOLD) contrast, followed by a strong magnetic field, to detect tiny changes in oxygen-rich and oxygen-poor blood. By showing pictures to invoke certain emotions, fMRI can reveal which areas are active during particular thoughts.

1. HEAD TRAUMA



CT scan

Fast and easily accessible 24 hours a day, these scans can identify life-threatening bleeding within the skull for neurosurgeons to stop.

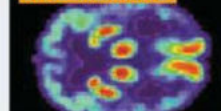
2. BRAIN TUMOURS



3D MRI

These 3D scans show intricate anatomical details of brain tumours, particularly in relation to the surrounding structures. This enables doctors to determine if they can be safely removed or not.

3. ALZHEIMER'S



PET scan

This functional imaging is allowing researchers to test novel drugs and treatments to prevent progression of this serious brain disorder.

DID YOU KNOW? CT scanning of the brain was invented in the early-Seventies

Picking apart the brain

The frontal lobes

The frontal lobes of the folded cerebral cortex take care of thought, reasoning, decisions and memories. This area is believed to be largely responsible for our individual personalities.

The sensory and motor cortices

The pre- and post-central gyri receive the sensory information from the body and then dispatch orders to the muscles, in the form of signals through motor neurons.

The occipital cortex

In the posterior fossa of the skull, this cortex receives impulses from the optic nerves to form images. These images are in fact seen upside down, but this area enables them to be interpreted the right way up.

The cerebellum

The cerebellum is responsible for fine movements and co-ordination. Without it, we couldn't write, type, play musical instruments or perform any task that requires precise actions.

The brainstem

Formed from the midbrain, pons and medulla oblongata, the brainstem maintains the vital functions without us having to think about them. These include respiration and heart function; any damage to it leads to rapid death.

The pituitary gland

This tiny gland is responsible for hormone production throughout the body, which can thus indirectly affect our emotions and behaviours.

Diffusion tensor imaging (DTI)

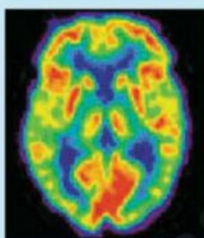
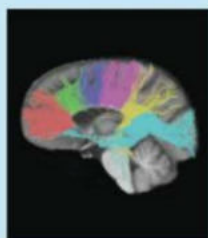
This MRI variant relies on the direction of water diffusion within tissue. When a magnetic gradient is applied, the water aligns and, when the field is removed, the water diffuses according to a tissue's internal structure. This allows a 3D image of activity to be built up.

Positron emission tomography (PET)

This bleeding-edge technology detects gamma rays emitted from biologically active tissues based on glucose. It can pick up unusual biological activity, such as that from cancer. There have been recent advances to combine PET with CT or MRI to obtain lots of data quickly.

Imaging Alzheimer's

Alzheimer's disease is a potentially debilitating condition, which can lead to severe dementia. The ability to diagnose it accurately and early on has driven the need for modern imaging techniques. The above image shows a PET scan. The right-hand side of the image (as you look at it) shows a normal brain, with a good volume and activity range. On the left-hand side is a patient affected by Alzheimer's. The brain is shrunk with fewer folds, and a lower range of activity – biologically speaking, there are far fewer neurons firing.





Welcome to... SPACE

Could the Red Planet ever have harboured life? Does it still? These questions have divided astronomers for centuries and, come August, we might finally have our answers – if the MSL mission goes to plan. Also in Space this month read about the most popular theory as to how Earth's only natural satellite – the Moon – came into existence, as well as the way we can forecast when meteors will fall from the sky.



48 MSL mission



57 Meteor showers



58 Birth of the Moon

- 48 Mars Science Laboratory
- 57 Meteor showers
- 58 How the Moon formed

LEARN MORE



IS THERE LIFE ON MARS?

In August, the Mars Science Laboratory will arrive at Mars. HIW explains how the most advanced rover yet will explore the Red Planet



It seemed a lonely existence just to see as far as what we thought was the edge of the universe 100 years ago. Turns out, it was just the far fringes of the Milky Way. Now our most powerful orbital telescopes can send us images of galaxies billions of light years from Earth, and though this has inspired hope in astronomers of eventually detecting intelligent life somewhere in the billions of worlds out there, until then our limited technology has left us scraping the surface of a desolate red-coloured planet that on average is around 225 million kilometres (140 million miles) from Earth – a mere eight light minutes. That's a cosmic heartbeat away that will take the Mars rover Curiosity nine months to reach, and though the odds of mankind discovering life on another planet within our own lifetimes are similarly

astronomical, Curiosity is keeping the dream alive. Once it has landed, its job will then be to study Mars for a full Martian year (about 687 Earth days), gathering samples and exploring its surface like no other rover before it, making the most comprehensive assessment yet of whether Mars was ever capable of supporting life.

This is far from the first time NASA, or any other governmental space organisation, has undertaken a mission to investigate our second-closest planetary neighbour in the Solar System. In the last 50 years, four different space agencies have sent 39 various probes, satellites and rovers to the Red Planet.

The first two, Korabl 4 and 5, were Martian probes launched on 10 and 14 October 1960, respectively, by the USSR and both of which were abject failures, unable even to obtain orbit around the

Earth. The USSR's next attempt in 1962, Korabl 11, did achieve Earth orbit but then broke apart. Korabl 13 suffered the same fate as Korabl 11 and the US's first shot at a Mars flyby with NASA's Mariner 3 failed to release a heatshield when it entered Earth orbit, the weight of which made it too heavy to achieve a Mars trajectory. Like so much other space junk, the terminated Mariner 3 project is now fated to orbit the Sun forever.

So it took a total of six attempts at getting to Mars before Mariner 4 flew past the planet in 1964 and took 21 photos of the surface in unprecedented detail. Since then 16 missions to Mars have overcome the difficult launch stage and achieved their goal, sending back data that has increased exponentially with our own space exploration technology. Based on the vital information gathered by the first successful soft landing on

DID YOU KNOW? Thanks to Spirit and Opportunity, we already know that Mars used to be much warmer and wetter



Mars, Viking 1, NASA's 1975 Viking 2 craft was able to land in a more advantageous position closer to the Martian north pole, to help take the photos that produced the Martian atlas that's still used today.

In 1996 the Mars Global Surveyor (MGS) became one of the most successful Mars orbiters ever, taking more images than all other Mars missions put together. And it seems that NASA in particular has been getting much better at the Mars gig recently; since the turn of the millennium, the US space agency has launched five missions to the Red Planet, all of them a resounding success with two that have exceeded their operating lifetime by 15 times the original NASA warranty. The Mars Exploration Rover Spirit was launched in June 2003 and landed in January

2004, moving several kilometres across the surface before it found evidence of water existing some time in the past. Spirit's success was amplified by the fact that it has hobbled with one stuck wheel for years, a blessing in disguise for NASA as the public warmed to the intrepid vehicle while it dutifully soldiered on despite the odds.

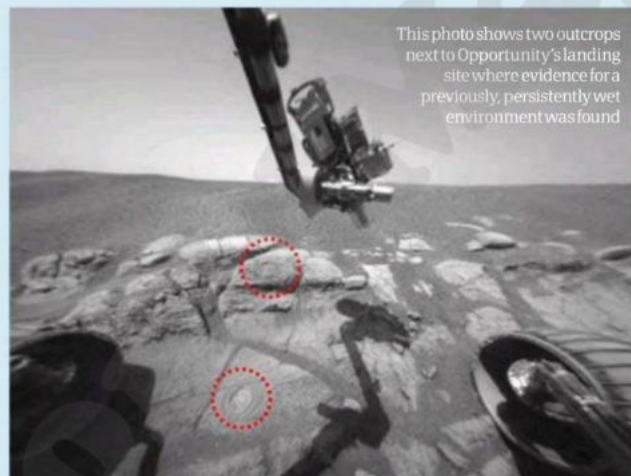
Opportunity was launched a month after Spirit and is still active today, having roved a 33-kilometre (20.5-mile) stretch to a crater called Endeavour that's 22 kilometres (13.7 miles) in diameter; it is currently exploring this feature. The tenacity of both Spirit and Opportunity bodes well for NASA's next generation of Mars rover, the Curiosity, which launched on 26 November 2011 and is due to make its landing on 6 August 2012. 🌟

Why go to Mars?

The primary reason we're incessantly firing more and more investigatory craft at Mars than any other planet is, as simple as it sounds, that it's close to us. Not as close as Venus, but the surface of the second-nearest planet to the Sun has an atmospheric pressure 92 times that of Earth and a 462-degree-Celsius (863-degree-Fahrenheit) temperature that's hot enough to melt zinc. That was enough to put the Soviet probe Venera 7 out of action within an hour when it landed on Venus in 1970, and enough to put NASA off sending its own lander to be cooked and crushed on the deadly

planet until nearly a decade after. By contrast, the thin atmosphere and -140 to 20-degree-Celsius (-220 to 68-degree-Fahrenheit) temperature range on the surface of Mars is far less hostile to our intrepid robots.

Unlike Venus, Mars also exists in the same 'Goldilocks' orbital zone as the Earth - that balmy circumstellar habitable region where a planet with the right atmospheric pressure can maintain liquid water on its surface. Moreover, we've already discovered evidence for the wet stuff on Mars - and where there's liquid water, there's the potential for life.



This photo shows two outcrops next to Opportunity's landing site where evidence for a previously, persistently wet environment was found



"On 5 August 2012, the MSL will enter the Martian atmosphere, 125km [78mi] above the planet"

Journey to the Red Planet

Three months after the successful landing of both Spirit and Opportunity, NASA began research for instruments to be used aboard the Mars Science Laboratory. But exploring and experimenting on Mars was only half the mission; first Curiosity needed to get to Mars. At the size and weight of a small car – five times that of Curiosity's predecessors – NASA couldn't simply rely on the old technology to safely deliver the rover.

There were several factors to consider: how to escape Earth's gravity and set Curiosity on the right trajectory, keeping a steady course, entering Mars's atmosphere and then safely landing.

First of all, the launch vehicle had to provide the appropriate amount of velocity needed to escape Earth's gravity. Considering the fully loaded Curiosity weighs in at 900 kilograms (2,000 pounds), NASA chose the tried-and-tested Atlas V 541, a variation on the Atlas V ELV (expendable launch vehicle) family with a near-perfect record since its maiden voyage in 2002. When fuelled with the liquid oxygen and kerosene propellant that makes up half its weight, the Atlas V can provide a whopping 387,500 kilograms-force (854,300 pounds-force) of thrust.

Attached to the Atlas V were four solid rocket motors. These were designed to give the Atlas V the additional boost it required to achieve orbit. Their solid fuel and oxidiser propellant provided this necessary push and, once ignited, burned until their fuel was completely expended before falling back to Earth. Once the Atlas had achieved the right altitude, the brawn of the mission had done its job and it was time for the brains to take over.

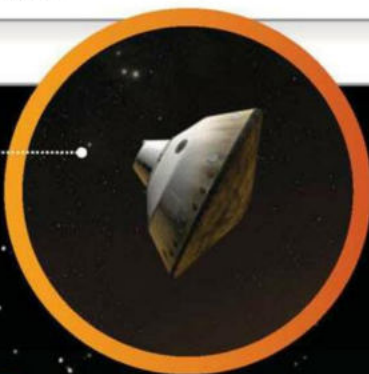
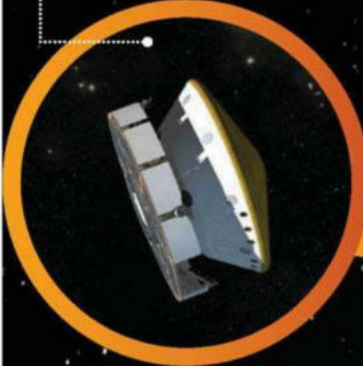
The second stage of the launch involved the Centaur, the upper-stage rocket that housed not only a liquid hydrogen and oxygen engine but the Curiosity payload and the flight control computer. The Centaur fired twice with up to 10,100 kilograms-force (22,300 pounds-force) of thrust using the computer to precisely adjust its direction: once to insert itself into low Earth orbit, then once again to launch Curiosity in its spacecraft on its way to Mars with a carefully calculated altitude and rate of spin. Having shed its protective fairing, the active part of the Mars Science Laboratory had gone from a pre-launch, complete shuttle weight of 531,000 kilograms (1.17 million pounds) to a cruise configuration of 3,893 kilograms (8,463 pounds).

The MSL cruise stage doesn't work all that differently from the cruise control in a terrestrial car. Speeding along at a velocity (relative to the Sun) of 30,150 kilometres (18,734 miles) per hour, it will make a total of six corrections to its trajectory along the way. The flight computer is currently doing this using an on-board star scanner that tracks the position of the cruise stage in relation to the stars, powering up its hydrazine-fed propulsion system when required. Computers will monitor the spacecraft over the nine-month transit, pumping coolant around systems that get hot, like the solar panels, while insulating instruments sensitive to the cold from the near-absolute-zero temperatures of space.

On 5 August 2012, the MSL will enter the Martian atmosphere, 125 kilometres (78 miles) above the planet. It's here that the aeroshell (a kind of heatshield) will separate itself from the now redundant cruise stage and begin its journey down to the surface. A parachute will deploy at 11 kilometres (6.8 miles) from the surface, and the aeroshell will fall away at eight kilometres (4.9 miles) as the MSL pings the surface of Mars with radar to adjust its position for an optimum landing. The entire backshell, parachute and all will separate from the MSL at an altitude of 1.6 kilometres (0.9 miles) where a new, rocket-guided landing system slows its descent. The final delivery system is a sky crane, which will lower Curiosity onto the surface for a soft landing.

1 Cruise stage
In its approach to Mars, NASA engineers make their final calculations.

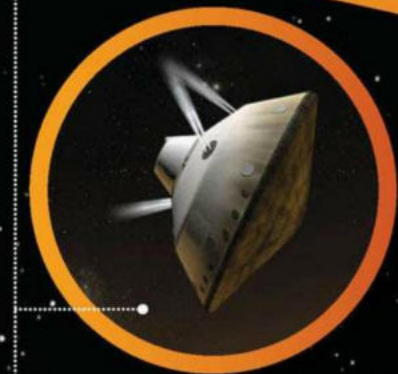
2 Cruise separation
As it enters the Martian atmosphere, the cruise phase separates from the MSL.



LANDING

Danger: Mars approaching!

The approach phase is one of the most dangerous parts of the MSL mission. Miscalculations could see the MSL spacecraft completely miss Mars or enter its atmosphere at a wrong angle, which would be catastrophic either way. So, 45 days before entering Martian atmosphere, NASA engineers will begin approach preparations by monitoring and updating the spacecraft's altitude, as well as the correction manoeuvres that will adjust its trajectory upon entry. This will be done using extra requested time from the Deep Space Network (DSN) of terrestrial antennas located in Spain, Australia and the USA.



3 Guided entry
Small rockets on the MSL craft fire to control its descent.

The Atlas V 541

Solid rocket motors

These four boosters increase the thrust of the rocket engine.

Atlas V rocket

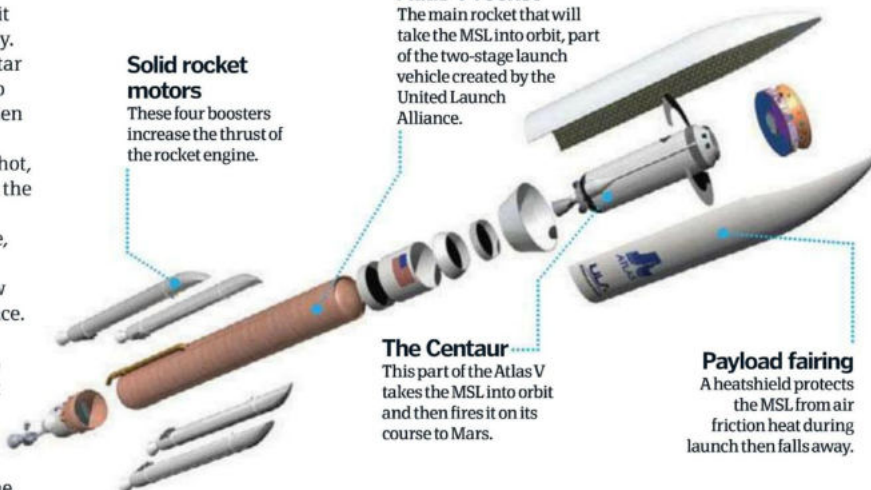
The main rocket that will take the MSL into orbit, part of the two-stage launch vehicle created by the United Launch Alliance.

The Centaur

This part of the Atlas V takes the MSL into orbit and then fires it on its course to Mars.

Payload fairing

A heatshield protects the MSL from air friction heat during launch then falls away.



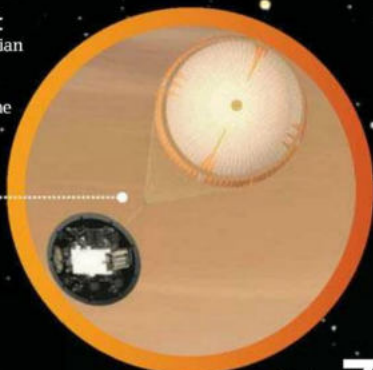
Valles Marineris on Mars is the Solar System's biggest canyon, at 4,023km (2,500mi) long, and up to 8km (5mi) deep and 644km (400mi) wide. On Earth, it would stretch the full length of the US.

DID YOU KNOW? The MSL project cost \$900m (£581m) more than its projected \$1.6bn (£1.03bn) estimate in 2006

ON MARS

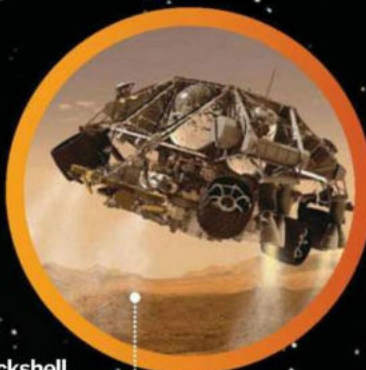
5 Parachute deployment

At a 11km (6.8mi) Martian altitude, the MSL parachute deploys to slow its descent and the heatshield falls away.



7 Backshell separation

The backshell detaches at 1.6km (0.9mi) from the surface of the planet.



8 Sky crane

With the landing zone in sight, the sky crane lowers Curiosity from its housing on a cable.



9 Touchdown

The sky crane places the Curiosity rover onto the planet, then flies clear of the zone.



4 Peak heating

The heatshield protects the MSL as it hits terminal velocity through the thickening Martian atmosphere.



6 Radar data

The MSL scans the surface with radar to judge precisely the most suitable landing site in a predetermined zone.



The landing site

Choosing the right landing site was critical. The last thing NASA wanted was to put Curiosity in a position where communication might be made difficult or in a region of less scientific interest. Although the rover is capable of articulate movement, at a speed of 144 metres (450 feet) an hour on smooth terrain, the area of Mars it can effectively explore during its mission is limited. Selection began in 2008 with NASA profiling an ideal landing site, which should have: 'clear evidence of a past or present habitable environment', a 'favourable geologic record' – meaning preserved layers of

rock exposed at the surface, evidence of past water, good accessibility for the rover and all of this located near a safe landing zone. Sites were narrowed from over 30 candidates down to the final selection in 2011: Gale Crater, a 154-kilometre (96-mile) -diameter remnant of an ancient impact that has a mountain called Aeolis Mons that is five kilometres (three miles) high in its northern portion. In its 3.5 billion years it has formed sedimentary layers and has evidence of a wet history. Curiosity will land on a relatively smooth plain just north of Aeolis Mons.



"The Curiosity has a much bigger range of movement than the Spirit or Opportunity rovers"

Martian experiments

Once Curiosity has been dropped off, then what? 40 years ago it was enough to get a man to the Moon and have him stick a flag in the ground. Today, despite the radical new methods involved in getting Curiosity to Mars, NASA's requirements of any extraterrestrial mission extend far beyond bragging rights.

The nature of many of NASA's future projects hinges on the success of the MSL's innovative technologies. The target landing site, for example, is an area of around 20 kilometres (12 miles) in length, a fivefold improvement in precision using the sky crane/rocket descent technique. Without this new tech, landing so close to the edge of the Gale Crater wall would be impossible. In a worst-case scenario, should the MSL lander fail to insert Curiosity safely or effectively into the landing zone, it may preclude similar Martian sites in the future. As the new system is capable of landing a vehicle even bigger than Curiosity (which is five times heavier than its predecessors, Spirit and Opportunity), a proven safe delivery onto Mars becomes even more important.

You'd have thought that, as Curiosity has been in development for nearly eight years, the NASA team would be keen to send the rover off to explore as soon as its wheels touch the ground. But as much as the scientists might like to do that, the engineers need to run a host of system checks that mean Curiosity won't be going anywhere until at least five days after landing. During this time, they will essentially be ensuring that the wheels aren't stuck and that the rover is capable of moving away from its landing position without embedding itself in soft sand, an irrevocable situation in which its predecessor Spirit found itself two years ago. But once that's done, the fun part of the MSL mission starts...

The nature of this mission is one of discovery, so NASA hasn't carved in stone exactly what the Curiosity will be doing in its 680 or so Earth days on Mars, though scientists do have a rough plan. Apart from maintenance and a 20-sol period (a Martian day, referred to as a sol, is nearly 40 minutes longer than an Earth day) when Mars is on the far side of the Sun, the Curiosity's activities will be prioritised according to what it can find. The Curiosity has a much bigger range of movement than Spirit or Opportunity, rated for roaming up to 20 kilometres (12.4 miles) from the landing site. As a result, a major portion of its time will be taken up driving to scientifically interesting sites and collecting samples.

There is a huge range of possible ways the MSL mission might unfold in the Martian year that it spends there. However, using what we already know about Mars and the landing zone, NASA has compiled a number of day-to-day activities into logical sequences that form five separate scenarios, measured in tactical windows known as sols. Traverse sols mostly involve roving between target sites, triggered by a ChemCam observation. Reconnaissance sols involve surveying a site prior to detailed study, triggered again by the ChemCam plus the Mars Hand Lens Imager (MAHLI). Approach sols are triggered by a previous sol and place a patch of soil or rock within the working area of the rover's robotic arm, while contact sols incorporate the arm-mounted instruments on the MSL to measure and observe a target.

Last but not least, sampling and analysis sols will most likely prove the most fascinating out of these five scenarios. The MSL will spend some time passing rock and soil samples through a sieve and into CheMin and Sample Analysis at Mars (SAM). In SAM, a suite of instruments will check for the presence of hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen and other elements associated with life. Meanwhile, CheMin will check for minerals like gypsum and jarosite, which indicate the presence of water and might point to a previous Martian environment that supported life.

The Curiosity and its payload

A closer look at some of the key equipment

■ **Rover:** Curiosity will traverse the Martian terrain, guided by its cameras, and collect samples

■ **MSL:** The Mars Science Laboratory, on board the Curiosity rover, will analyse the samples in depth

Power

A radioisotope thermoelectric generator (RTG) uses the predictable rate of plutonium's radioactive decay to generate electricity from heat.

ChemCam

The mast head includes a pair of cameras used to help navigation, but the star of the show is the ChemCam. This checks out rocks and soil from a distance, before blasting the surface with a laser. The resulting plasma can be analysed for its composition with an on-board spectrometer.



The statistics...

Curiosity rover

Cost: \$2.5bn (£1.6bn)

Weight: 900kg (1,984lb)

Scientific payload: 57kg (125lb)

Size: 3 x 2.7 x 2.2m (10 x 9 x 7ft)

Arm reach: 2.2m (7ft)

Wheels: 6

Top speed: 144m/ph (450fph)

Power: Plutonium RTG

Wheels

Six wheels with a 'rocker-bogie' system help the Curiosity balance over uneven terrain, while cleats on the tread provide grip.

MEDLI

Like RAD, MEDLI (or MSL Entry, Descent and Landing Instrument suite) will provide data vital to future missions to Mars. It's made up of two parts. One measures atmospheric pressure on the heatshield during descent to help determine the spacecraft's orientation, while the other measures heat during entry and descent to help choose the composition of future heat shielding.

1. LONG



Sojourner

The Mars Pathfinder rover landed on 4 July 1997 and communications were lost just a couple of months later on 27 September 1997.

2. LONGER



Spirit

The first of the two Mars Exploration Rovers landed on the Red Planet on 4 January 2004 and its final communication was received on 22 March 2010.

3. LONGEST



Opportunity

Spirit's twin has been on Mars since 25 January 2004 and, amazingly, is still going, eight years on, having survived through five Martian winters.

DID YOU KNOW?

In Victorian times, it was widely believed that life flourished on Mars

The WEB

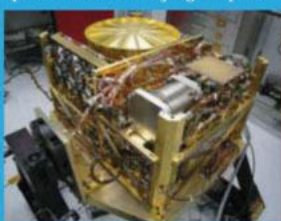
The body of the rover is called the warm electronics box (WEB), and contains its computer and other fragile equipment.

The computer

Inside, the computer, the brains of the Curiosity, regulates systems, calculates movement and enables communications with mission control.

SAM

Sample Analysis at Mars (SAM) is a major piece of kit. Indeed, at around 30kg (over 60lb) it takes up more than half the Curiosity's scientific payload and is more than the Spirit and Opportunity's entire scientific payloads combined. It's a kind of mobile chemistry set that includes a mass spectrometer, gas chromatograph and laser spectrometer for studying samples.



Curiosity's first drive

After landing, but just before it takes its first 'steps', engineers need to run some important tests on the rover. Of primary concern is its initial footing and the terrain, which must be assessed so that the Curiosity can be moved safely away from the landing site. Then the MSL will go through a start-up sequence that includes measuring the air temperature, testing communications, unfolding the mast that carries the navigation camera, shooting images of its immediate surroundings and helping mission control pinpoint its precise location. Only then will Curiosity make its first foray across Mars.

REMS

The Rover Environmental Monitoring Station (REMS) is the Curiosity's own weather vane, providing measurements on atmospheric pressure, UV radiation, wind speed and more.

Surviving winter on Mars

Martian winters are more brutal than even the coldest place on Earth. It can plummet as low as -143 degrees Celsius (-225 degrees Fahrenheit) in the negligible atmosphere of the polar ice caps. It gets so cold that the carbon gas in the atmosphere freezes at certain times in the Martian calendar, causing the atmospheric pressure

to plunge. The main problem with Spirit and Opportunity wasn't the cold, though - it was that they were solar-powered, which meant that during the dark periods they went into a state of hibernation with little or no activity. However, Curiosity has an independent power source, so it won't have to work around the same constraints.

The coldest recorded temperature on Earth is -89°C (-129°F), while on Mars it can get as low as -143°C (-225°F)



Hazcam

Two cameras - one on the front and another on the rear - capture three-dimensional images that help avoid crashes.

RAD

The Radiation Assessment Detector (RAD) is one of the more radical (excuse the pun) instruments on board the Curiosity. It detects and measures high-energy radiation, both from space and irradiated surfaces. It's being used with the intention of preparing NASA for human exploration of Mars in the future.



"Curiosity's capable of examining scientifically interesting sites from a distance then moving to them"

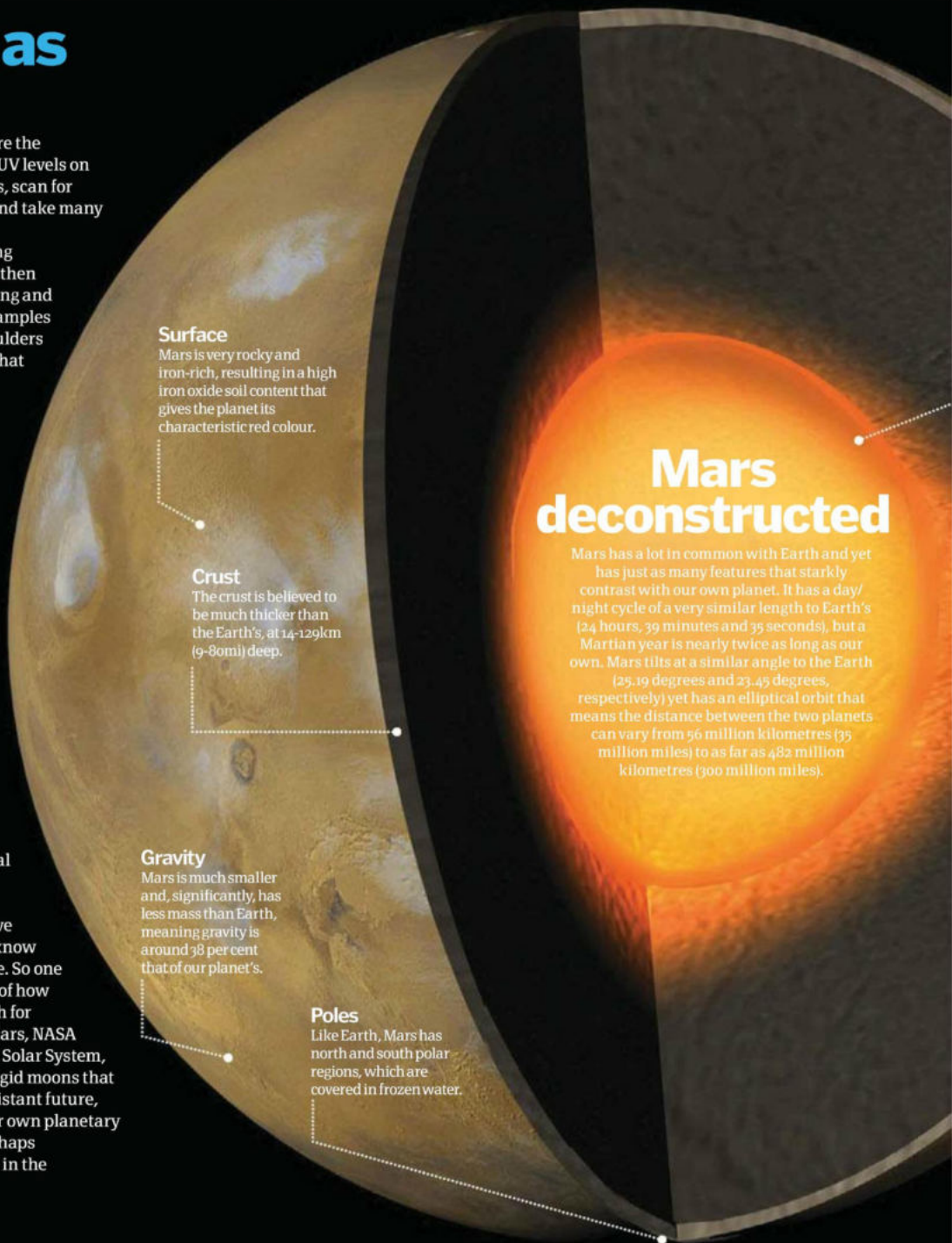
Life – but not as we know it...

Curiosity is a very versatile machine. It can measure the atmospheric pressure, humidity, wind speed and UV levels on Mars, detect radiation levels dangerous to humans, scan for minerals and gases trapped beneath the surface and take many gigabytes' worth of images and video.

The rover is very tactile too, capable of examining scientifically interesting sites from a distance and then moving to them, scooping up soil samples, collecting and sifting through Martian rock, drilling to remove samples with a mechanical arm, blasting the surface of boulders with a powerful laser and examining the plasma that they emit. It can then analyse everything it has zapped, drilled, scooped and sucked up in a portable laboratory housed in its body that could rival a university chemistry lab. We know it can collect masses of useful scientific data, but what can we expect to find, and what can we conclude from that information?

NASA's major goal in all the experiments that the MSL will conduct in its Martian year is to assess whether the processes on Mars indicate a planet that was ever capable of supporting life. A lifeless planet (or moon, such as Earth's) that proves completely inert for billions of years could never have harboured life, for example. We know Mars has been subject to geological and atmospheric changes for millions of years, so the MSL is there to see what other changes the planet has experienced and to examine the finer details. Among other things, it will analyse sedimentary rock to see whether water was once present and look for evidence of ancient microbes, the simplest of life forms, in the rocks that will leave behind geological signatures, like ancient organisms that formed calcium carbonate (chalk) on Earth.

From a broader perspective, we're very subjective judges of the conditions that lead to life – we only know for sure that the conditions on Earth led to life here. So one of the goals of the MSL is to build up a new picture of how other organisms might evolve, to help in the search for potential life around the cosmos. From MSL and Mars, NASA has other targets in the long term. Within our own Solar System, these include Titan, Europa and Enceladus, the frigid moons that orbit Saturn and Jupiter. Then maybe in the very distant future, we'll be able to send a space laboratory beyond our own planetary system to those exoplanets with life potential, perhaps discovering the conditions for life somewhere else in the universe, whatever form it may take.



Surface

Mars is very rocky and iron-rich, resulting in a high iron oxide soil content that gives the planet its characteristic red colour.

Crust

The crust is believed to be much thicker than the Earth's, at 14-129km (9-80mi) deep.

Gravity

Mars is much smaller and, significantly, has less mass than Earth, meaning gravity is around 38 per cent that of our planet's.

Poles

Like Earth, Mars has north and south polar regions, which are covered in frozen water.

Mars deconstructed

Mars has a lot in common with Earth and yet has just as many features that starkly contrast with our own planet. It has a day/night cycle of a very similar length to Earth's (24 hours, 39 minutes and 35 seconds), but a Martian year is nearly twice as long as our own. Mars tilts at a similar angle to the Earth (25.19 degrees and 23.45 degrees, respectively) yet has an elliptical orbit that means the distance between the two planets can vary from 56 million kilometres (35 million miles) to as far as 482 million kilometres (300 million miles).

Missions to Mars

Past, present and future 'soft' landings on Mars

1971

The Russian lander Mars 2 touches down safely, then promptly stops transmitting.



1976

Viking 1 is a complete success for NASA, lasting for over six Earth years.

1997

NASA's Mars Pathfinder successfully lands its 10.5kg (23lb) rover, Sojourner.



2004

Mars Exploration Rovers A and B, Spirit and Opportunity, land three weeks apart.



2008

The most recent spacecraft to successfully land on Mars is the Phoenix lander.



TERRAFORMING MARS

Scientists believe colonisation of Mars is possible. The atmosphere would need thickening and temperature raising, but this could be done using a giant orbital mirror to melt the ice caps, releasing carbon dioxide gas and triggering a greenhouse effect.



DID YOU KNOW? Mars is much smaller than Earth, but because it has no oceans, it has about the same land surface area

Core

Unlike Earth, Mars has very little magnetic field, indicating a solid or partly solid core.

Clean machine

Keeping any scene of investigation clear of external influence is vital to a scientist. NASA is searching for the potential for Martian life, so minimising any terrestrial contamination is a major priority for the MSL. Contaminants are measured as 'spores' and might

include Earth bacteria, dust and other synthetic materials. Throughout the project, NASA has gone to great lengths to keep the MSL as clean as possible, resulting in a spore count less than half the maximum set by NASA Planetary Protection Office regulations.



Keeping in touch

To receive commands and send data back to NASA, Curiosity will make use of terrestrial and Martian infrastructures. On Earth, three enormous antenna arrays consisting of dishes up to 70 metres (230 feet) in diameter make up the DSN (Deep Space Network). These are based in the USA, Spain and Australia. Communicating directly with the DSN can be costly in terms of Curiosity's energy consumption and, due to the orbital position of Mars relative to the Earth and the

Sun, it might not always be possible. Therefore sometimes Curiosity will uplink to two satellites orbiting Mars: the Mars Odyssey and the Mars Reconnaissance Orbiter. These are between 257 and 400 kilometres (160 and 250 miles) above the surface of the Red Planet, so are not only costing Curiosity less energy to send messages to, but they have Earth in their field of view for a lot longer, granting a larger window of communication.



Mars Odyssey, one of the two satellites in orbit around the Red Planet that Curiosity will use to communicate with Earth.

Atmosphere

A thin Martian atmosphere is made up of 95 per cent carbon dioxide and five per cent nitrogen, argon, oxygen and water vapour. It's poisonous to humans.

Interior

Scientists think Mars has a similar, triple-layer interior to Earth's, with a crust, mantle and core.



Interview John Grotzinger - Project scientist

A key member of the MSL science team offers some first-hand insight

How It Works: First, what does your role as project scientist on the MSL involve?

John Grotzinger: Probably the best way to think about it is like being the chief scientist. What that means is that we've got the rover, with all its capabilities and all the science instruments, and nine principal investigators who were responsible for building it and developing those instruments, calibrating them and establishing protocols and procedures for how we're going to operate them when we land on Mars. My responsibility is to co-ordinate all this interaction and oversee the science team of 300-plus members.

HIW: Your area of expertise is ancient surface processes on Earth and Mars - can you tell us why this was so relevant to this project?

JG: Basically, since the primary objective for the mission is the search for habitable environments on Mars - and the emphasis is strongly in the area of ancient Mars, which is why we chose the landing site - it's kind of exactly what I do on Earth. As a geobiologist, before I got involved in Mars projects, we head off into a particular field area that we select in advance, usually involving some of the oldest rocks on Earth. Then we set up our equipment, make maps and collect samples that we bring back to the lab for analysis.

HIW: How do you investigate possible life?

JG: We borrow quite heavily from these [geobiology] principles and use them for our guidance. The search for a habitable environment involves looking for evidence of an aqueous environment because water is important for all microbes. You're often trying to establish some source of energy that, if the microbes had been there, would have been used for metabolism. Then you're looking for carbon because this is a building block for life as we know it. So you take those elements as the key ingredients along with some other 'proper' elements like nitrogen, hydrogen, oxygen, sulphur and phosphorus. Then you're looking for the geological context that can present those [such as a mass of layered rock]. We hope that, as we work our way through the layers at Mount Sharp in Gale Crater we'll [uncover] the physical and chemical properties that tell us about what kind of ancient environment this once was.

Visit our website to read the entire interview.

2012

The Curiosity rover is set to touch down on Mars on 6 August.

2014

Finland's MetNet plans to initiate a multi-lander network.

2016

The ESA will use the Trace Gas Orbiter (TGO) to place a lander on Mars.

2018

As part of the same ESA ExoMars project, Russia plans to deploy a rover.



2023

Mars One is an ambitious private project that aims to establish a human colony on Mars.



"A meteor shower is a group of meteors that originate from the same source"

The Leonids

While not the most consistent of meteor showers, the Leonids can be one of the most dynamic spectacles in an astronomer's calendar. They're a product of the comet Tempel-Tuttle, which has a radius of around 1.8 kilometres (1.1 miles) and has a 33-year cycle. The comet itself is fairly unremarkable compared to the likes of Halley's or Hale-Bopp, however it leaves behind a dense stream of debris that results in a meteor shower rate that can reach as many as 300 meteors an hour.



Meteor showers

Why the most famous of these celestial spectacles are an annual event



Meteors enter the Earth's atmosphere all the time. Spend a little time looking up at the sky at night in the country or a place with similarly low light pollution and there's a good chance you'll see a 'shooting star', the result of air friction burning the meteor up. At certain times of the year astronomers can even forecast an increase in their frequency and luminosity as annual meteor showers hit our planet. So why do these occur regularly and how are scientists able to predict them?

A meteor shower is a group of meteors that originate from the same source. In the common case of one of the most prolific annual meteor shower events in

the cosmic calendar, the Perseids, they're material stripped off the comet Swift-Tuttle by solar radiation as it passes the Sun. This debris then trails behind the comet, spreading out along its orbit and, if the Earth's own orbit crosses its path, then a meteor shower ensues. As it happens, both Earth and Swift-Tuttle follow very regular paths, which is why when Earth crosses Swift-Tuttle's orbit a predictable, late-July event occurs that peaks in August at around 75 meteors an hour.

Perhaps the most famous comet of them all, Halley's, has its own regular meteor shower called the Orionids that appear in October, though at a much lower rate than the Perseids. ✨

Is the Swift-Tuttle comet a threat?

Swift-Tuttle has a 130-year orbit of the Sun and its first recorded sighting was by astronomers Lewis Swift and Horace Tuttle 150 years ago in July 1862. Astrophysicist Brian Marsden's calculations for the next perihelion (the name for any satellite's closest approach to the Sun) in 1992 were off by 17 days, which put the comet on a potential collision course with Earth in 2126. It panicked astronomers, as the comet is around 9.7 kilometres (six miles) wide, which is roughly the same size as the Chicxulub asteroid that's generally held to be the major culprit in the extinction of the dinosaurs 65 million years ago. But having traced Swift-Tuttle's orbit back 2,000 years, Marsden was able to refine his calculations to put the comet a comfortable 24 million kilometres (15 million miles) away for its next appearance. However, if the calculations play out, there *will* be a real cosmic near-miss when 3044 rolls around, as Swift-Tuttle will pass within just 1.6 million kilometres (1 million miles) of our planet.

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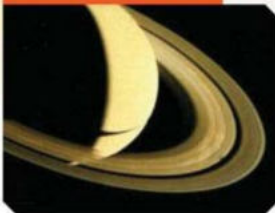
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EXPLORATION



SOLAR SYSTEM



DEEP SPACE



FUTURE TECH



ASTRONOMY



"Recent studies of the Moon's chemistry revealed the surface is virtually identical to Earth's"

How was the Moon made?

Discover the cataclysmic events that led to the formation of Earth's only natural satellite



Between 363,570 and 405,410 kilometres (around 220,000-250,000 miles) from Earth is our only natural satellite, the Moon. It's very different from its mother planet: it has around one-eighth of the Earth's mass, a very thin, almost negligible atmosphere and it's completely devoid of life. Yet at the same time, it's very similar, with a distinct crust, mantle and solid iron core plus a mineral composition almost identical to Earth's volcanic geology. A coincidence? Scientists think not.

There are four theories of the Moon's creation, three of which have generally been discredited. One suggests the Moon is the result of dust coalescing during the formation of the Solar System, another that the Moon was an asteroid captured by Earth's gravity. Finally, 'fission theory' states that Earth was spinning so rapidly when it formed the molten mass split in two.

The generally accepted idea though is that around 4.5 billion years ago, when the Earth was forming, a Mars-sized planet – dubbed Theia – collided with it. It was such a cataclysmic event that the smaller planet was completely destroyed, sending its own iron into the Earth's core while throwing trillions of tons of debris from the surface into orbit. Eventually this coalesced to form the Moon.

This 'giant impact' theory ties into the creation of our Solar System about 50 million years before the Earth formed, during a period of intense asteroid bombardment that lasted for about 750 million years. This bombardment eventually settled, either colliding with early planets like Earth, being ejected from the Solar System or falling under the influence of the Sun's gravity and becoming part of the Asteroid Belt located between Mars and Jupiter. ☼

4.5 billion years ago (BYA)

The Earth and a smaller planetary body, Theia, form in the same orbit.

4.45 BYA

Theia's orbital angle changes with its increasing mass and, after a period of many years, it collides with the Earth.

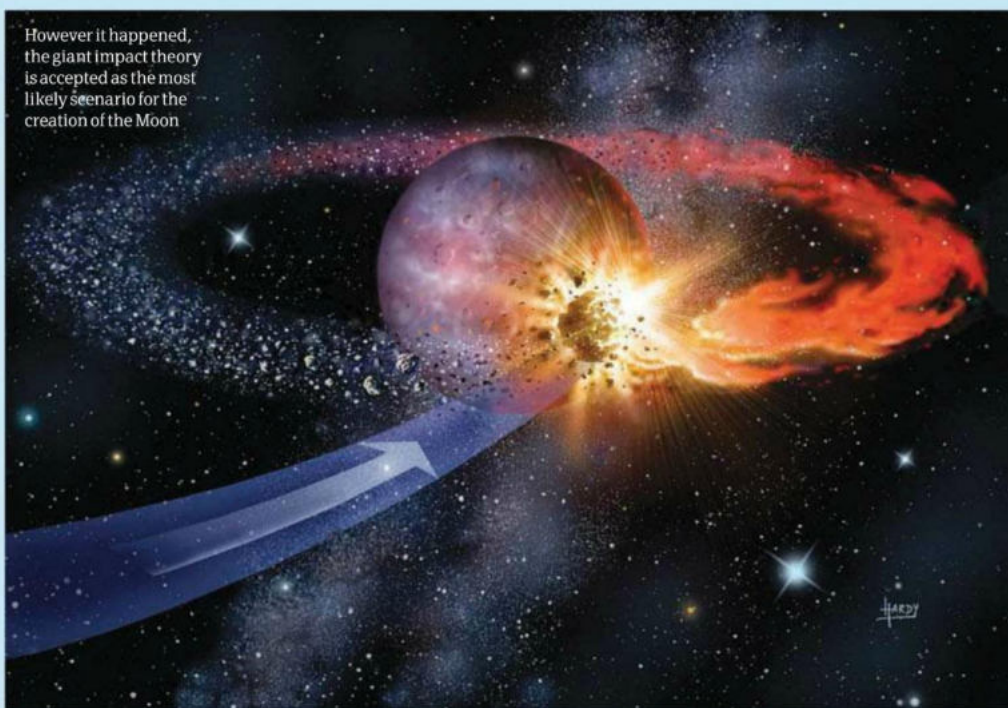
4.43 BYA

Debris thrown out into orbit by Theia begins to coalesce under its own gravity to form the Moon.

Scientific doubts

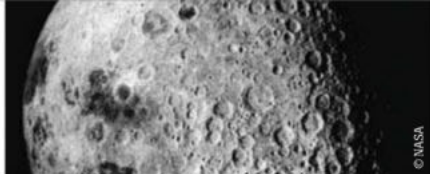
Recent studies of the Moon's chemistry by the University of Chicago revealed the surface is virtually identical to Earth's, which raised questions over the giant impact theory: if a Mars-sized planet struck our world, why is there no apparent trace of it? The impact is supposed to have been so colossal it nearly tore the Earth apart, causing it to warp into an oblong shape before rebounding under the force of its own gravity. Explanations include the possibility that Theia was a comet made of ice that could provide the required energy for the giant impact theory, but it subsequently evaporated. Scientists have also suggested that the Earth could have been spinning so fast at the time that Theia was thoroughly mixed into the Earth and the debris that eventually became the Moon. In either case, giant impact is still our most viable theory as to the creation of our lunar neighbour.

However it happened, the giant impact theory is accepted as the most likely scenario for the creation of the Moon



NO MOON, NO LIFE

Without our Moon – specifically, without our large Moon – there might be no life on Earth. It has protected us over millions of years from deadly asteroids and also regulates our seasons, giving life a chance to take hold.



© NASA

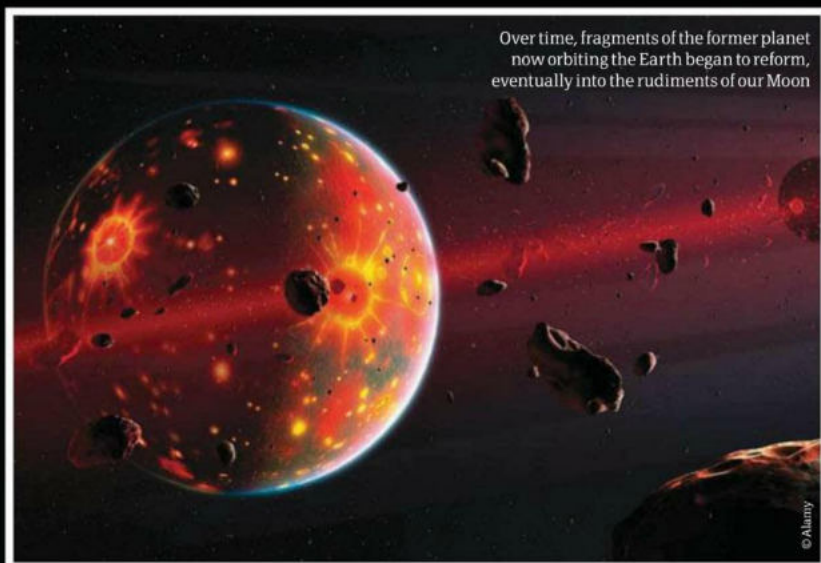
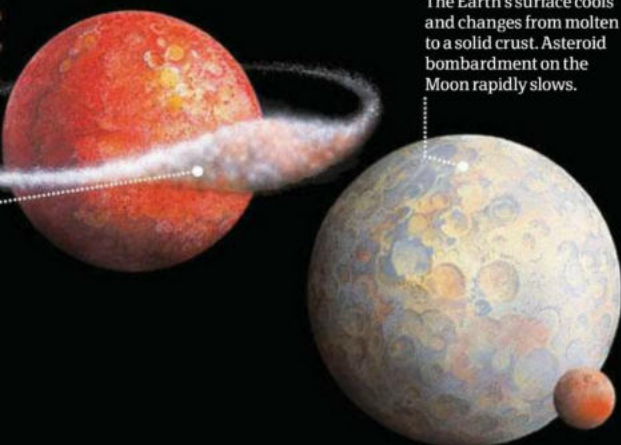
DID YOU KNOW? Like a glancing shot off a snooker ball, the oblique angle Theia hit the Earth at caused our planet to spin

The giant impact theory

See, step by step, the various stages in our Moon's formation

3.8 BYA

The Earth's surface cools and changes from molten to a solid crust. Asteroid bombardment on the Moon rapidly slows.

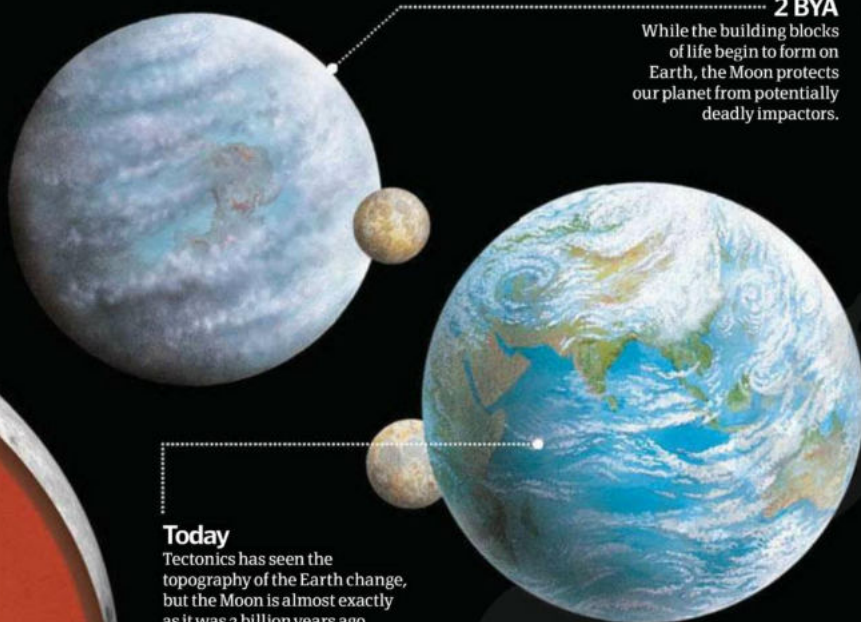


Over time, fragments of the former planet now orbiting the Earth began to reform, eventually into the rudiments of our Moon

© Alamy

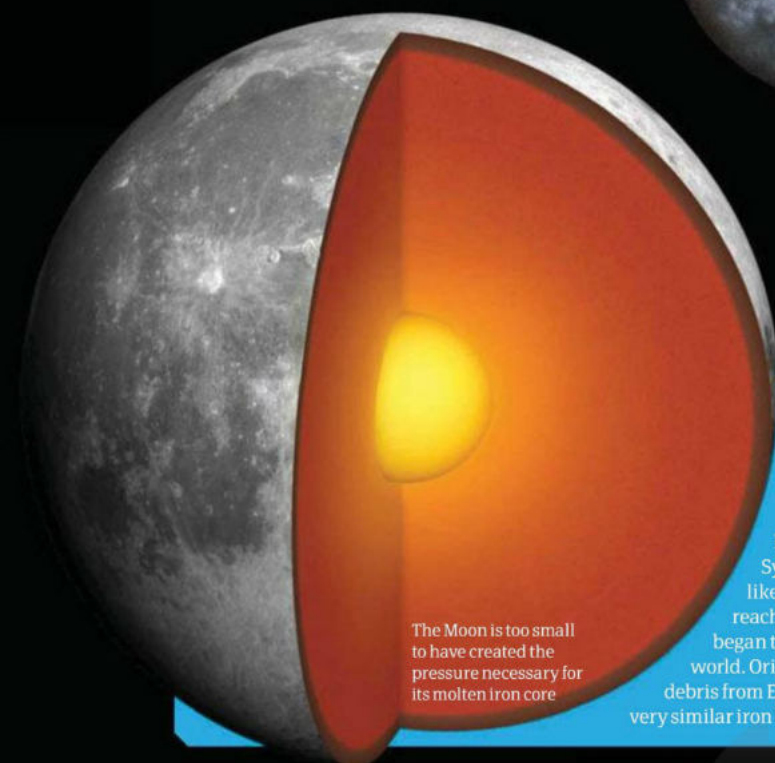
2 BYA

While the building blocks of life begin to form on Earth, the Moon protects our planet from potentially deadly impactors.



Today

Tectonics has seen the topography of the Earth change, but the Moon is almost exactly as it was 2 billion years ago.



The Moon is too small to have created the pressure necessary for its molten iron core

What was Theia?

The Mars-sized body that hit Earth was named after the Greek Titan who gave birth to the Moon goddess Selene. One theory is that it formed in the same orbit as Earth and, over time, coalesced with the abundance of debris in our early Solar System until it was big enough to come under the influence of its own gravity. Then, like the Earth, it began to attract asteroids that added to its bulk over time. When it reached the size of the Red Planet its orbit became unstable, its orbital angle to Earth began to increase until, eventually – just over 4.5 billion years ago, it collided with our world. Originally it was thought that the Moon was mostly the remains of Theia mixed with debris from Earth, but recent research shows that the core of the Moon and the Earth have a very similar iron composition, suggesting that they both originated from the same source.

34 © SPL



Welcome to... ENVIRONMENT

Even in everyday moggies it's hard not to be impressed by their agility, stealth and assassin skills... but what happens when all of those talents are supersized? Also learn about an equally adept killer of the plant world - the Venus flytrap - before we look at massive marine mountains.



64 Spider webs



68 Venus flytrap



70 Oceanic ridges

60 Big cats

64 Spinning spider webs

66 Plant cells

68 Venus flytrap

68 Jellyfish life cycle

70 Underwater mountains



LEARN MORE



BIG CATS

What makes these beautiful creatures such consummate experts in the business of killing?



The big cats aren't a single biological grouping. It's an informal term that includes the lion, tiger, jaguar and leopard (sometimes called the Great Cats), as well as the cheetah, cougar, snow leopard and clouded leopard. (The three kinds of leopard actually belong to three different genera and aren't very closely related, despite looking quite similar.) Big cats are all apex predators that hunt large mammals using their excellent camouflage to keep hidden and powerful muscles to catch and dispatch their prey.

An antelope runs on the very tips of its feet, which allows it to have a much longer stride and means it is very fast. Cats can't do this because they have claws instead of hooves, and they need to retract them to keep them sharp. To catch hoofed animals, the big cats must run with their entire spine flexing to help elongate their effective stride. It's a very energetic technique though and cats can't run fast for long distances. This in turn pushes them to be stealthy in the approach and brutal in the

attack. Where a wolf will bite and retreat as it waits for its prey to bleed to death, a cougar will leap onto the back of its prey and crunch straight through the spine with a single bite.

The roar of a big cat is a sound made by the walls of the specially elongated larynx vibrating as the cat exhales, but not all big cats can do it. The cougar, cheetah and snow leopard have no roar, but they do make a variety of other noises, including chirps, screams and growls. All of the big cats are able to climb trees. Leopards are the strongest climbers; indeed, an adult male can haul a young giraffe almost six metres (20 feet) into a tree. This skill enables big cats to protect their kills from hyenas and other pack scavengers that might steal them.

It's easy to think of animals this magnificent in terms of being 'perfectly adapted', but in fact hunting large animals is incredibly difficult and all apex predators hover perpetually close to the brink. If they were anything less than brutally fit, they simply couldn't survive at all. 🐾

Top acceleration

1 A cheetah can accelerate from 0-97km/h (0-60mph) in less than three seconds; that's faster than a Ferrari Enzo, a Lamborghini Gallardo or a Porsche 911 Turbo!

Mystery tuft

2 The lion is the only cat which features a furry tuft on its tail. This conceals a spike formed from fused bones at the end of the spine. Its anatomical function is still unknown.

Rise of the panther

3 Panthers aren't separate animals; it's actually just the term for an all-black mutation of a leopard or jaguar. In 1,500 years or so time, all leopards may have evolved to be completely black.

Long leapers

4 Snow leopards prefer to chase prey down a steep hill rather than on flat terrain. This often ends in a huge final leap of up to 14m (46ft), which is roughly the length of a bus.

Deafening roar

5 Lions have the loudest roar of any cat; a male lion's roar can be heard up to 8km (5mi) away. This helps to defend its territory against other males in the vicinity.

DID YOU KNOW? A leopard will eat anything from a dung beetle up to a 2,000lb giant eland

Meet the cats...

Tiger

Type: Mammal
Diet: Carnivore (eg wild boar, water buffalo)
Life span in the wild: 20-26 years
Weight: 240kg (530lb)
Height: 1m (3.2ft)
Length: 3m (9.6ft)
Able to roar?: Yes



Leopard

Type: Mammal
Diet: Carnivore (eg Thomson's gazelle, monkeys)
Life span in the wild: 18-20 years
Weight: 60kg (132lb)
Height: 0.65m (2.1ft)
Length: 2.1m (6.8ft)
Able to roar?: Yes



Cougar

Type: Mammal
Diet: Carnivore (eg deer, elk)
Life span in the wild: 8-10 years
Weight: 80kg (176lb)
Height: 0.75m (2.5ft)
Length: 2.4m (7.9ft)
Able to roar?: No



Clouded leopard

Type: Mammal
Diet: Carnivore (eg hog deer, brush-tailed porcupine)
Life span in the wild: 7-10 years
Weight: 18kg (40lb)
Height: 0.33m (1ft)
Length: 1.8m (5.9ft)
Able to roar?: Partially



Snow leopard

Type: Mammal
Diet: Carnivore (eg goats, ibex)
Life span in the wild: 15-18 years
Weight: 41kg (90lb)
Height: 0.6m (2ft)
Length: 1.9m (6.2ft)
Able to roar?: No



Cheetah

Type: Mammal
Diet: Carnivore (eg Thomson's gazelle, impala)
Life span in the wild: 12-14 years
Weight: 55kg (120lb)
Height: 0.8m (2.6ft)
Length: 1.3m (4.3ft)
Able to roar?: No



Jaguar

Type: Mammal
Diet: Carnivore (eg caimans, capybaras)
Life span in the wild: 12-15 years
Weight: 75kg (165lb)
Height: 0.7m (2.2ft)
Length: 2.2m (7.2ft)
Able to roar?: Yes

Lion

Type: Mammal
Diet: Carnivore (eg wildebeest, zebra)
Life span in the wild: 10-14 years
Weight: 200kg (440lb)
Height: 1.2m (3.9ft)
Length: 2.2m (7.2ft)
Able to roar?: Yes



ON THE MAP

How the big cats are globally distributed

Lions: Sub-Saharan Africa, and a single population in the Gir Forest, northwest India

Tigers: India, southeast Asia, southeast Siberia

Cheetahs: Sub-Saharan Africa, plus a small population in Iran

Cougars: West Canada, central and west USA, plus most of Central America and South America

Jaguars: Central/South America

Leopards: East/central Africa, pockets of the Indian subcontinent, southeast Asia, China

Snow leopards: Hindu Kush, Himalayas, Altai Mountains and Khangai Mountains

Clouded leopards: Southeast Asia, Nepal

"The biggest threats to big cats are habitat loss due to human expansion and poaching"

Purr-fect predators

Want to kill something three times your size? Here's what you need...



Threats to the big cats

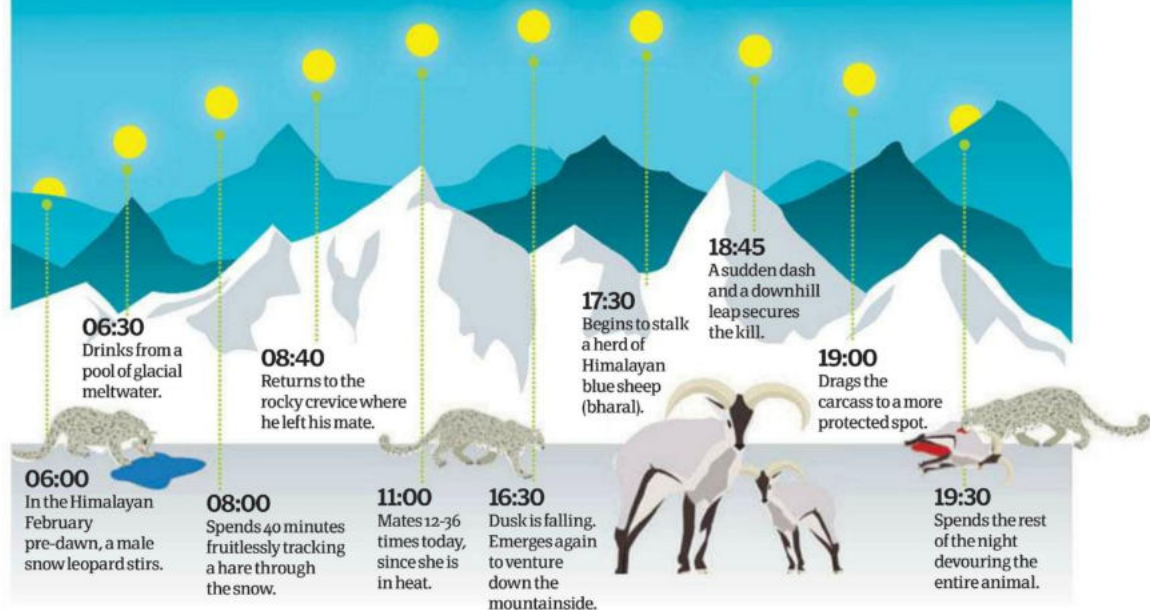
Top carnivores are inherently vulnerable species. They require large home ranges and reproduce relatively slowly. Lions, leopards and cheetahs all suffer high infant mortality from other predators – indeed, up to 90 per cent of cheetah cubs are lost. Cheetahs also have very low genetic variability, possibly due to an extreme population bottleneck thousands of years ago, leading to birth defects as a result of inbreeding; captive breeding schemes have had very limited success. The biggest threats to big cats, though, are habitat loss due to human expansion and poaching. Although most cats have a wide geographic distribution, human development has fragmented these ranges into pockets, each of which may be too small for them to flourish in the long term.

Feuding families

Most big cats are solitary creatures. Female tigers, cougars, jaguars and leopards will maintain a territory of roughly 15-25 square kilometres (5.8-9.7 square miles) and raise their cubs alone. The male has a much larger territory – indeed, cougars have been reported with territories as extensive as 1,300 square kilometres (500 square miles) – but this is to control access to females, not food.

In the big cat kingdom, lions are unusually social because they hunt in the open and need to co-operate to have any chance of success. A typical pride consists of five or six females and one or two males, along with several cubs. Females do most of the hunting; males overheat too easily with their large manes. Males that join a pride will normally start by killing all the cubs. Females are very promiscuous and mate 20-40 times a day when in heat; this makes it harder for males to tell which cubs are theirs and so reduces the rate of infanticide.

A day in the life of a snow leopard



The cougar is the animal with the most folk names. These include catamount, ghost cat, puma, shadow cat, mountain lion, deer tiger, silver lion, devil cat and catawampus.

DID YOU KNOW? If you shave a tiger of its fur the skin beneath will still be stripy

Hunting techniques

Big cats generally hunt between sunset and dawn. They are ambush predators that move silently through dense undergrowth using their excellent vision and hearing to spot their prey before their prey spots them. Although they are all incredible sprinters, big cats lack stamina. A cheetah may exhaust itself so badly in a 60-second dash that it needs half an hour to recover and most cats will give up if they cannot run down their quarry in 30 seconds. Accordingly, they always attack from a position of advantage, leaping from cover or a tree branch, etc. Tigers will even launch attacks from the riverbank into the water and are strong enough swimmers to take on crocodiles.

Strangulation

The most common attack technique, used by all big cats, is to lunge at the neck and clamp down on the windpipe with powerful jaws. This cuts off the air supply and prey that is already out of breath from the chase quickly loses consciousness.



Asphyxiation

Another way to achieve the same result is to take a wide bite and clamp over the victim's mouth and nostrils, so it can't breathe. Lions and occasionally leopards will use this technique on antelope, but it isn't suitable for larger prey like zebra.

Neck breaking

The largest cats can leap on the back of an animal and bite right through its neck, severing the spine. This paralyses the victim instantly and ends the struggle, but it requires tremendous bite force. Lions, tigers and cougars all use this method.

Artery slicing

In the chaos of the final lunge, a cat may miss the windpipe of its prey and instead slice open the carotid artery. This is a slightly slower kill but it still gets the job done, as the victim will bleed to death.

The paw swipe

Lions and tigers are so strong that they can kill merely with a swipe of their paws. Tigers in particular have been witnessed swiping at adult domestic cattle with enough force to shatter the skull.

Skull piercing

The jaguar has the strongest bite of any cat – twice as powerful as the much larger lion. This may have evolved to enable them to bite through the shells of turtles, but jaguars also use it for a unique finishing move: their canine teeth can puncture an animal's skull and pierce the brain.

What's on the menu?

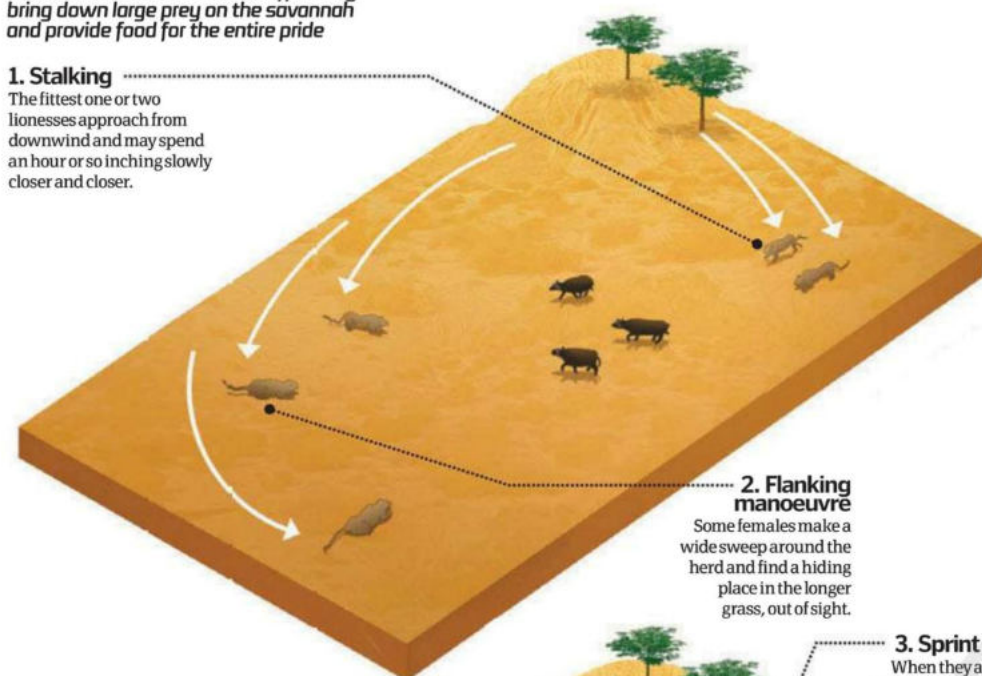
Hunting big game is an erratic profession. Cheetahs can generally manage a 50 per cent success rate but a tiger may only kill its prey one time in every 20 attempts. Consequently, they need to be able to make the most of each kill. Lions will eat 30 kilograms (66 pounds) of meat in one sitting, while jaguars can eat 25 kilograms (55 pounds) – a third of their body weight; that is the equivalent of you eating over a hundred Big Macs in one sitting! After a meal like that, lions, tigers, cougars and snow leopards can go for up to two weeks without eating again. Big cats are all quite opportunistic hunters. As well as their favoured prey of medium to large herd animals, they will eat monkeys, rodents, lizards, porcupines and birds' eggs. Many cats – especially the forest dwellers – will also eat insects and a small amount of fruit and vegetation.

How lions hunt

Lionesses work as a team to efficiently bring down large prey on the savannah and provide food for the entire pride

1. Stalking

The fittest one or two lionesses approach from downwind and may spend an hour or so inching slowly closer and closer.



2. Flanking manoeuvre

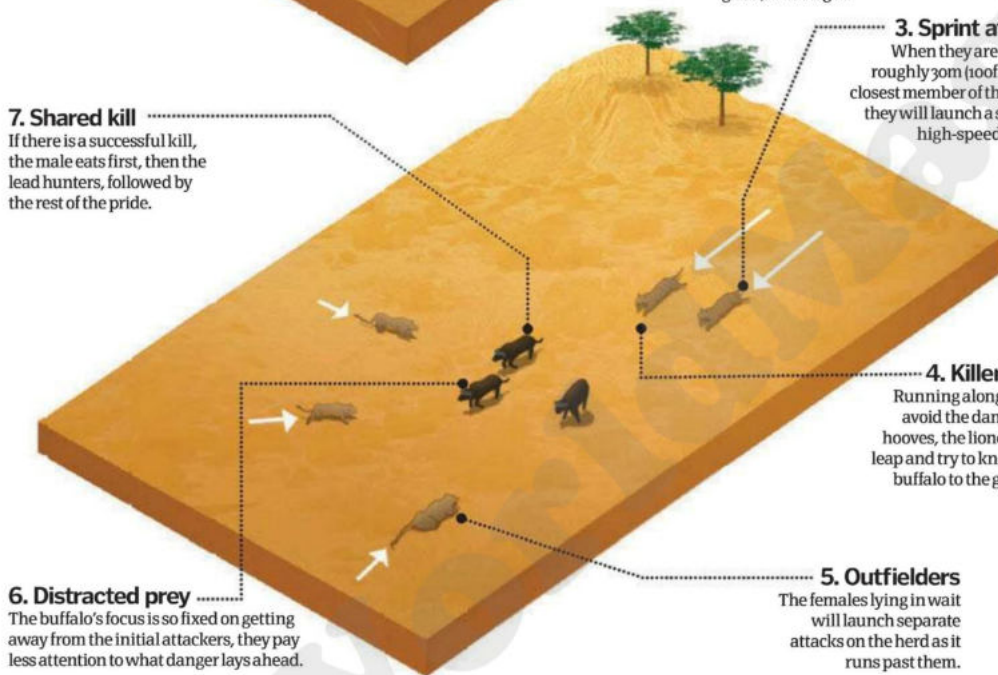
Some females make a wide sweep around the herd and find a hiding place in the longer grass, out of sight.

3. Sprint attack

When they are within roughly 30m (100ft) of the closest member of the herd, they will launch a sudden high-speed chase.

7. Shared kill

If there is a successful kill, the male eats first, then the lead hunters, followed by the rest of the pride.



4. Killer leap

Running alongside to avoid the dangerous hooves, the lioness will leap and try to knock the buffalo to the ground.

5. Outfielders

The females lying in wait will launch separate attacks on the herd as it runs past them.

6. Distracted prey

The buffalo's focus is so fixed on getting away from the initial attackers, they pay less attention to what danger lays ahead.

"With the main frame lines in position, the spider begins to attach radial threads"

How does a spider construct its web?



The spinnerets in action, here being used to cocoon a victim

© Alamy

Learn how arachnids create their spiral orb webs in which to ensnare prey



Building a spider web is a very complex process. Referring to the stages below, first the spider (at point A) dangles a length of sticky silk, which can be carried in the air until it sticks to an anchor point, such as a branch (see point B). Once the silk is attached to point B, the spider pulls it taut and fixes the original end to anchor point A, creating the 'bridge thread' (red).

Now the spider fixes a second strand (blue) to point A and spins this while crossing the bridge. This thread is looser than the first and droops below the bridge thread. At point B the spider attaches this strand but doesn't pull it taut.

Next the spider travels back halfway along the now anchored loose thread (to point C; the web centre); the weight of the spider bows the thread into a V-shape, and from the bottom of the 'V', the spider attaches a third thread, which is spun as

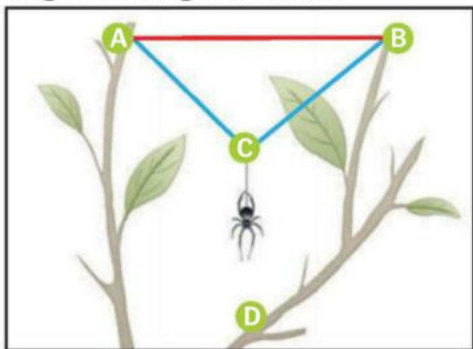
the arachnid descends to another branch (anchor point D). This turns the V-shape into a Y-shape, and creates another integral pathway. The spider continues to create more of these structural strands until a basic framework is in place.

With the main frame lines in position, the spider adds radial threads from the centre to surrounding vegetation, much like the spokes of a wheel. These form the non-stick paths upon which the creature can safely navigate its trap.

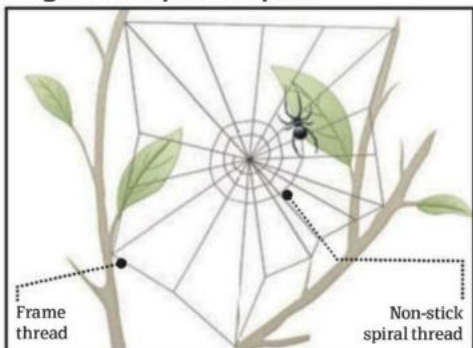
Next the spider creates a silk spiral across the radial lines from the inside out. Using this as a template, it repeats this stage, except this time the threads are coated in bug-catching adhesive.

Now all the spider needs to do is position itself at the centre of its trap and wait. These creatures are very sensitive to vibrations and, quick as a flash, the spider can expertly traverse its web to confront a haplessly entangled victim. 🕸

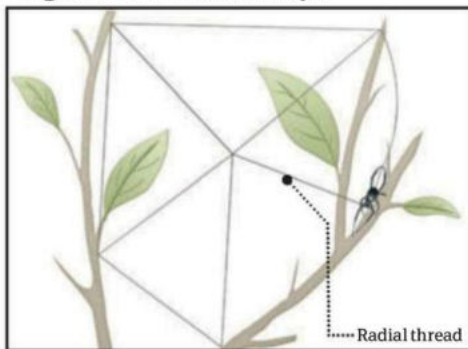
Stage 1: Creating a framework



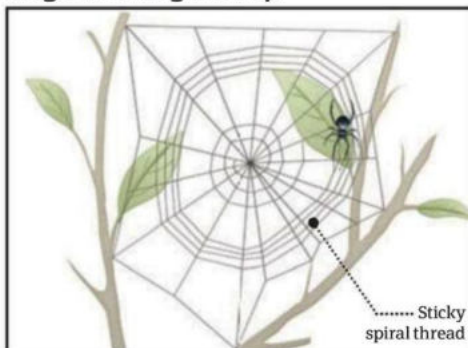
Stage 3: The spiral template



Stage 2: The orb takes shape



Stage 4: Setting the trap



The science of silk

Spider silk is made of proteins called fibroins. It's very strong – in fact, weight for weight it's tougher than steel – yet also extremely elastic. These two characteristics, together, make for one unique substance in nature that the world's greatest material scientists have been trying to re-create artificially.

Silk is secreted as a liquid from the spider by the spinnerets, which are special glands located in the tip of the arachnid's abdomen. Upon contact with air the liquid instantly hardens to become a fine but strong silk. As the material is produced, the spider pulls it into long, thin threads using its legs.

The reason the spider itself does not become caught in its own web is that, first, it knows which sticky strands to avoid and, second, the adhesive hardens if the unwitting victim makes a sudden movement, but not with the gentle, considered movements of the spider.



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"They are eukaryotic, which means they contain a nucleus – a structure that acts as the cell's 'brain'"

Plant cell anatomy explained

Discover how these tiny living structures function



Without the plant kingdom, life on Earth would be a very different prospect. This huge and diverse group of living organisms not only nourishes the vast majority of animal life with

tasty, nutritious roughage, but it also replenishes our atmosphere with enough oxygen to keep us living and breathing. Quite simply, life on Earth depends on plants.

There are a number of characteristics that make all living things 'alive'. For instance, they require food for growth and development; they respond and adapt to their surrounding environments; they have a life cycle of growth, reproduction and death; and, importantly, they contain cells.

Discovered by Robert Hooke in the 1650s, plant cells are the building blocks of all plant life. Just like animal cells, they are eukaryotic, which means they contain a nucleus – a structure that acts as the cell's 'brain' or command centre. Found in the nucleus is the plant's genetic information, which is used to inform the rest of the cell which functions to carry out.

Everything inside the cell is contained within a thin, semi-permeable lining called the plasma membrane. Inside this membrane is a sea of cytoplasm, a gelatinous substance in which all the other parts of the plant cell are found – most of which have specialised functions. These 'expert' structures have dedicated roles and are known as organelles, or 'mini organs'. Surrounding the plasma membrane is a rigid outer cell wall made from a fibrous substance called cellulose.

Another characteristic of a plant cell is its large vacuole. This is an area filled with fluid and gas and it accounts for most of a cell's mass. The vacuole swells with fluid to help maintain a cell's shape. The tough cell wall is strong enough to withstand this increased pressure and ensures this organic 'balloon' doesn't burst. ✿

Cytoplasm

Cytoplasm is the jelly-like substance inside the cell in which energy-producing chemical reactions occur. The cytoplasm fills the space between the cell membrane and the nucleus.

Ribosome

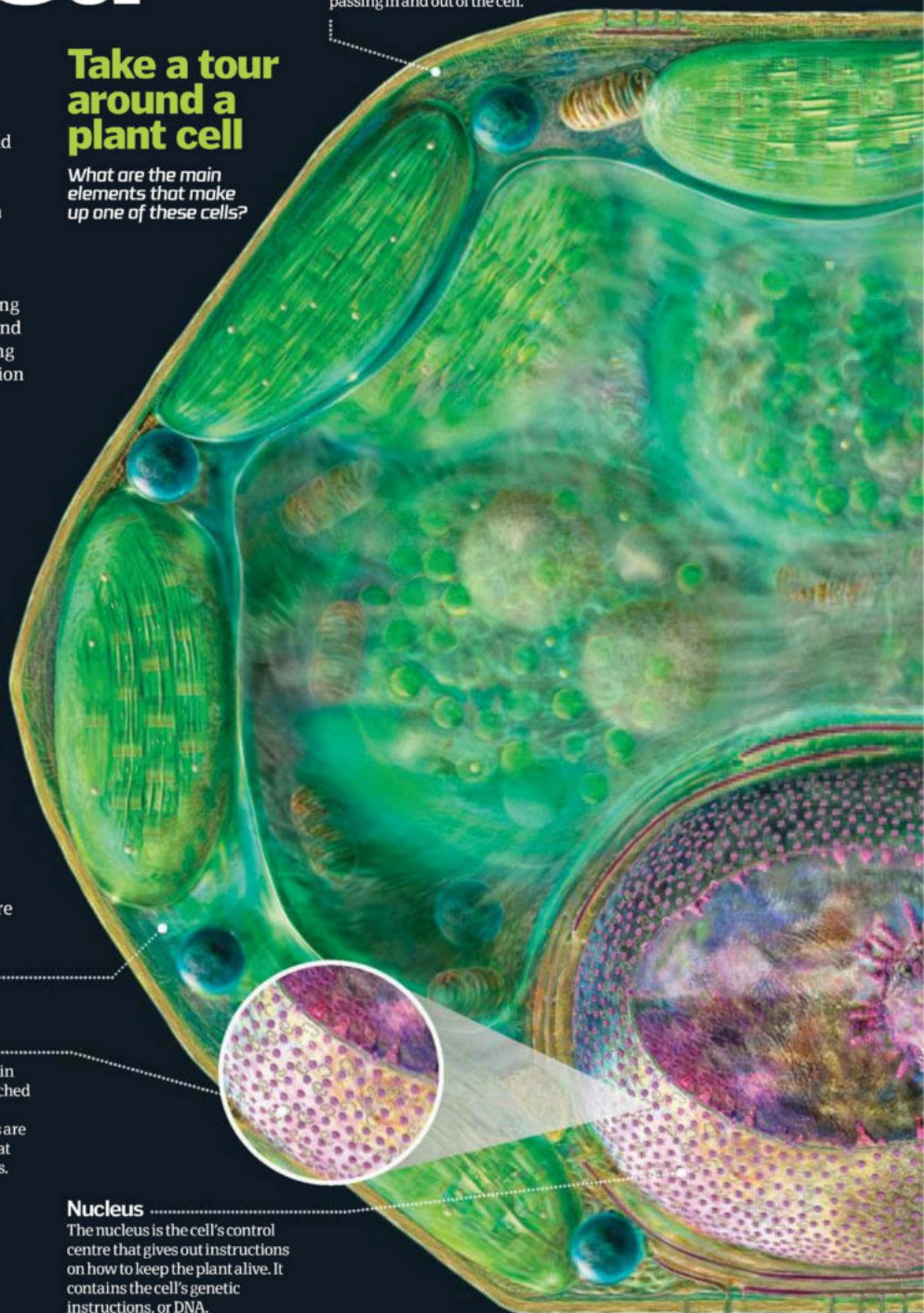
Found either floating in the cytoplasm or attached to the endoplasmic reticulum, ribosomes are the tiny structures that manufacture proteins.

Take a tour around a plant cell

What are the main elements that make up one of these cells?

Cell membrane

The cell, or plasma, membrane is the layer that covers the cytoplasm and separates the cell from its external environment. It controls all substances passing in and out of the cell.



Nucleus

The nucleus is the cell's control centre that gives out instructions on how to keep the plant alive. It contains the cell's genetic instructions, or DNA.

5 STOP FACTS

PLANT CELLS

Discovery

1 17th-century scientist Robert Hooke was the first to study plant cells with a microscope. In his book *Micrographia* he described his observations and coined the term 'cell'.

Plant or animal?

2 Though plant and animal DNA molecules are chemically similar, the differences in the way the nucleotides are arranged determine whether an organism is animal or plant.

Food factory

3 Sunlight turns CO_2 and H_2O into glucose. When photons from the Sun hit the chlorophyll in a plant, electrons are excited. Chloroplasts then transfer this energy to a plant's food-making organelles.

Free lunch

4 While most plants can create their own food from the elements, some parasitic plants do not have chlorophyll to photosynthesise. These species depend on a host to obtain glucose and other nutrients.

Eukaryotic vs prokaryotic

5 Plant cells have a nucleus, which makes them eukaryotic (the same as fungi). Cells that do not have a nucleus are known as prokaryotic and include single-celled organisms like bacteria.

DID YOU KNOW?

While all other animal cells are eukaryotic, red blood cells are erythrocytic as they do not contain a nucleus

Chloroplast

Chloroplasts are effectively like solar panels that capture the Sun's energy and use it to make food for the plant – a process called photosynthesis. Inside a chloroplast is chlorophyll, the pigment which gives most plants their green colouring. Chlorophyll is essential for photosynthesis as it absorbs the sunlight to produce glucose.

Vacuole

The large vacuole is a kind of storage area for water and waste gases. It helps to keep the cell plump and turgid.

Cell wall

Made of indigestible cellulose fibres, the rigid outer cell wall protects and supports the cell, while allowing water and gases to pass into it. This wall provides strength and gives the cell its shape.

Nucleolus

Within the nucleus, the nucleolus is a smaller sphere in which protein-making ribosomes are made.

Golgi apparatus

Also a kind of organelle, a Golgi body processes and packages proteins ready for transport outside the cell or to other parts within the cell.

Endoplasmic reticulum

This membrane acts like a conveyor belt that transports proteins around the plant cell interior as well as outside the cell wall.

Mitochondrion

The mitochondria are organelles that produce much of the energy the cell needs to function.

Peroxisome

Peroxisomes are the organelles that aid photosynthesis. They contain enzymes that break down toxins and remove waste from the cell.

Plant cells vs animal cells

As we've mentioned already, there are many similarities between plant and animal cells. However, there are also several key differences. For example, animal cells are bigger and less regular in shape and size than those of plants, which are generally regimented in appearance. Take a look at the main structures in a plant cell that are absent in animal cells.

Cell wall

While both animal and plant cells have a thin cell membrane that controls what goes in and out, plants differ in that they also have a cell wall made of cellulose. This rigid outer wall enables the plant to hold a lot of moisture under pressure without popping, while also providing essential structural integrity. The contents of an animal cell, meanwhile, are held by the cell membrane alone. Animals tend to rely on endo- and exo-skeletons for support.

Single large vacuole

Plant cells also contain a single, extra-large vacuole, which takes up most of the space in the cell and keeps it plump and turgid. Some animal cells do contain vacuoles, but they are always much smaller and never take up this much space.

Chloroplasts

Plants manufacture their own food (glucose) from sunlight, water and carbon dioxide, but humans and animals must *absorb* food obtained from plants and other living creatures. The difference is that plant cells contain chloroplasts – the structures that contain the green, sunlight-absorbing chlorophyll pigment – in which photosynthesis can take place.

“There are several key differences between animal and plant cells”

How the Venus flytrap kills

How does this carnivorous plant catch its prey?



Though it has no nerves, muscles or even a stomach, the Venus flytrap can sense, trap and consume its dinner like any intelligent hunter. Indeed its distinctive design inspired the mechanical traps we humans now use to ensnare prey. These predatory plants can grow in the inhospitable, nutrient-poor soils that regular plants cannot, because flytraps can gain nutrients in more resourceful ways. As you're about to find out...

Trigger hair

On the inner face of each lobe are between three and five sensory 'trigger' hairs, which can detect movement. When an insect touches at least one trigger hair, within the space of 20-30 seconds, a tiny electrical charge is sent to the midrib.

Lobe

The flytrap's two leaves are called lobes. The inner faces of the two lobes are lined with hairs and enzyme-producing glands. When the trap is open, the lobes are in a convex position.

Cilia

Each lobe has a row of long, thin interlocking spines down one edge - perfect for entombing small victims. These are called cilia.

Nectar

As with any trap, bait is needed to lure victims in, so for the flytrap nectar is ideal for enticing hungry insects.

Digestive glands

Now for the really gory part: the plant secretes digestive enzymes through glands (red dots) that dissolve the insect, causing it to release nutritious carbon and nitrogen, which nourish the flytrap. About a week later, the trap will reset, revealing the bug's remains.

Outer lobe pores

The electrical charge caused by the trigger hairs opens pores in the outer faces of the lobes. Water from the inner faces of the lobes floods to the outer faces, making the interior suddenly very limp and the exterior very turgid. This rapid pressure change causes the lobes to snap shut, incarcerating the bug in under a second.

Midrib

The hinged midrib is located where any regular leaf would have a central vein.

The jellyfish life cycle



How do these predatory invertebrates develop?

Medusa

The ephyrae continue to grow and develop a distinctive large bell. It spends the rest of its life independent from the polyp colony. At the medusa stage it's capable of reproduction.

Growth stage

As the polyp grows, it produces clones of itself - a process called asexual budding. This new 'colony' of polyps starts to propagate on the stem of the main polyp, linked by feeding tubes. This can go on for years before the baby jellyfish (or ephyrae) detach and swim off independently.

Planula

Once the eggs have begun embryonic development, they become tiny free-swimming larvae called planulae. They grow tiny hairs called cilia to propel themselves around.

Polyp

The planula stage is extremely short and before long it will have attached itself to a hard surface on the floor of a coastal reef. Here the planula grows a stalk with which to anchor itself to something solid like a rock. At the top of the polyp a mouth and tentacles develop for feeding and growing.

How jellyfish sting

Some jellyfish and other cnidaria have stinging cells called cnidocytes in their tentacles, used for hunting and self-defence. Each cell features a poison-tipped stinging thread coiled inside. On the outside is a trigger that discharges the stinger, firing it towards the victim. The venom includes a paralysing neurotoxin.

Egg

Depending on the species, the female's eggs are fertilised either by being released into the water where they encounter the sperm, or by the adult female collecting the sperm in special brooding folds.

Sperm

Both male and female jellyfish sex cells are made in reproductive organs called gonads. The male adult jellyfish produces sperm, which it releases via its mouth.

5 TOP FACTS SPITFIRE F Mk.22



Scan this QR code with your smartphone to find out more!

Very fast

The Spitfire F Mk.22 was capable of speeds in excess of 450mph, making it one of the fastest Spitfires of all time.

Missed, but not forgotten:

The F Mk.22 was in fact obsolete before it even entered service, due to the advent of new jet technology.

Auxiliary use

Only 1 regular RAF squadron used the variant, but 12 auxiliary Air Force squadrons operated the type.

Very popular

Export users included Egypt and Syria, where the variant saw combat against other Spitfires!

Best got better

The penultimate Spitfire variant, the F Mk.24 differed from this variant in only its cannons and some panel details.

How it worked

The famous elliptical wing shape was lost on the F Mk.22, replaced by squarer units.

The F Mk.22s powerful Griffon engine enabled the aircraft to reach speeds in excess of 450mph.

To aid handling, affected by the size and power of the Griffon engine, the F Mk.22 featured a re-designed tail unit.

A cut down rear fuselage gave the pilot an excellent field of vision. Vital in a dog fight.

Carrying four 20mm cannons this variant of Spitfire was amongst the most heavily armed.

SUPERMARINE SPITFIRE F Mk.22

Considered by many to be the ultimate land-based Spitfire, the F Mk.22 and its successor the F Mk.24, were the pinnacle of RJ Mitchell's original iconic design. While not the first Griffon powered Spitfire (the MkXII), nor the last in service with the RAF (the PRXIX), the F Mk.22 was the final version of the Spitfire to see the frontline operations with the RAF.

The F Mk.22 Spitfire was about as sophisticated as the post-war Spitfires were to get. It differed from the final variant, the F Mk.24, in only minor respects, but used the same massive Griffon engine delivering well over 2,200hp which dictated the enlarged tail control surfaces introduced with the Mk.21.

The redesigned wing was a distinctive feature of the type which performed well until eventually being outclassed by the first jet fighters.

A02033 1:72 Scale Supermarine Spitfire F Mk.22



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"Most of the mid-Atlantic plate is underwater, but some of it is high enough to appear above sea level"

Massive marine mountains

If you thought mountain ranges were restricted to land, then think again...



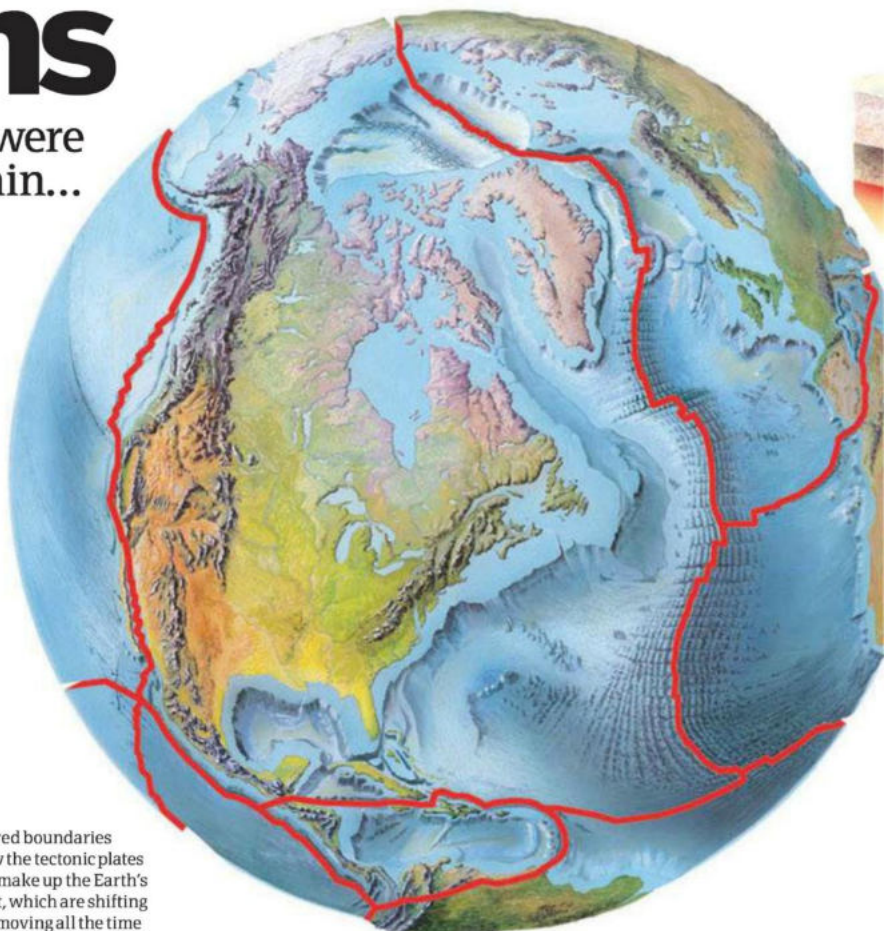
The Mid-Atlantic Ridge is part of the longest mountain range in the world – these mountains just happen to be underwater. Mid-ocean ridges are a result of plate tectonics, and form due to

volcanic activity in the oceanic crust. Currents in the Earth's mantle cause magma to heat up, and it is forced through weak spots in the crust. The resulting lava cools into a new layer of crust. This pushes the plates apart and the resulting formation often has a rift, or valley, in the centre where two different plates are being pushed apart. All of these mid-ocean ridges are connected around the world, totalling 80,000 kilometres (50,000 miles) or so in length.

The Mid-Atlantic Ridge by itself is around 10,000 kilometres (6,200 miles) long. It separates the North American tectonic plate (which also includes the Bahamas, Cuba, Greenland and parts of other countries) from the Eurasian tectonic plate. It also separates the South American tectonic plate from the African tectonic plate. Most of the mid-Atlantic plate is underwater, but some of it is actually high enough to appear above sea level. This includes a ridge that contains the island of Iceland, as well as a number of other islands.

Oceanographers and researchers have thought there was a mountain range in the ocean here since the 1870s, and it was confirmed in 1925 by sonar. It wasn't until the Fifties, however, that we were able to fully understand the unique features hidden in the depths of the mid-Atlantic, and realised just how massive it really was. In addition to the islands, there are numerous deep trenches and valleys as well as extensive seismic activity, which is constantly altering the terrain.

The red boundaries show the tectonic plates that make up the Earth's crust, which are shifting and moving all the time



Mid-Atlantic Ridge key features

1 Romanche Trench

This trench is the third deepest in the Atlantic, and bisects the Mid-Atlantic Ridge around the equator, between Brazil and west Africa. It is about 19km (12mi) wide, 300km (186mi) long and 7,766m (4,828mi) deep. Because of its depth, it plays a key role in water circulation between the east and west Atlantic basins.



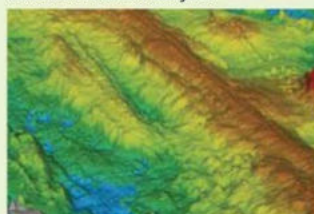
2 Iceland

The island of Iceland is in the northern Atlantic Ocean and is part of a sub-ridge on the Mid-Atlantic Ridge that's known as the Reykjanes Ridge; this rises 2,110m (6,923ft) from the seabed. Incidentally, Iceland is also on top of a mantle plume, a place where hot rock has risen through the mantle but isn't a part of plate tectonics.



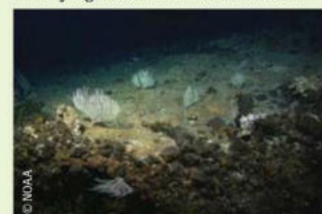
3 Deep rift valley

This valley runs the entire length of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge (approximately 10,000km/6,200mi) and serves as the boundary between the North American and the Eurasian tectonic plates that are separated by the ridge. At 1-3km (0.6-1.8mi) deep, it is similar in depth and width to the Grand Canyon.



4 Atlantis Massif

This huge dome-shaped hill is just west of the centre of the ridge. It's about 1,700m (5,500ft) high and much wider than other hills on the ocean floor. It's very smooth compared to the surrounding terrain, so it must be fairly new (in geological terms), but oceanographers are still trying to determine how it formed.



LENGTH: 10,000km (6,213mi)

NUMBER OF ISLANDS: 6

SPREADING RATE PER YEAR: 2.5cm (1in)

BELOW SEA LEVEL: 2.5km (1.5mi)

DEEPEST POINT: 7,758m (25,453ft)

YEAR DISCOVERED: 1872

DID YOU KNOW? We think of the seafloor as stable, but it's actually spreading continually due to volcanic/seismic activity

Seafloor evolution

The terrain of the ocean floor is changing all the time due to the ongoing activity occurring in the mantle below the Earth's crust

Atlantic plates

Atlantic plates are slow spreading, which results in a deep valley forming between the plates.

Lava

Lava cools in the ocean and builds up in a ridge.

Molten rock

Magma rises up through weaker spots in the ocean crust.

Median valley

This closeup shows the deep rift that forms in the ridges of the Atlantic, with its various layers of rock.

Black smoker

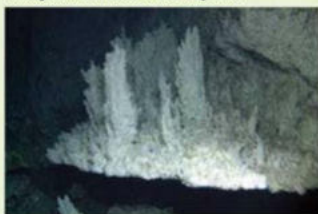
This is a hydrothermal vent that is located along many different mid-ocean ridges. It is black because it ejects sulphuric minerals.

Pacific plates

Pacific plates spread quickly and oceanic crust forms so fast that there's a crested ridge in the centre, rather than a valley.

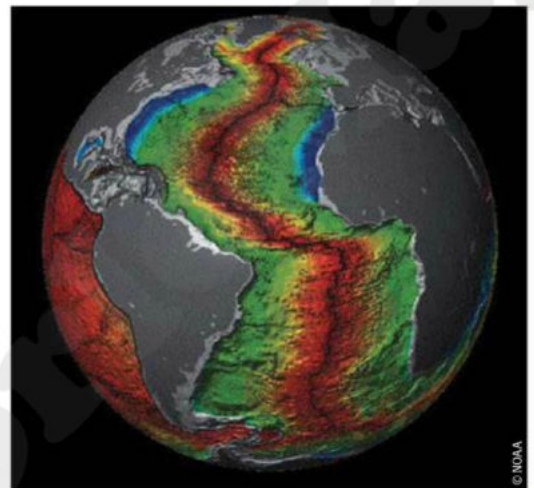
5 Hydrothermal vents

These hydrothermal vents are located in the same region as the Atlantis Massif. They're essentially openings in the crust where geothermally heated water spews into the ocean. They vent a lot of methane and hydrogen into the water, and this has created a unique ecosystem in the ocean depths.



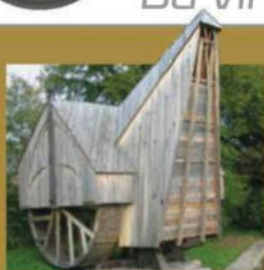
What lies beneath...

The Mid-Atlantic Ridge actually sits on another formation in the ocean, which is called the Mid-Atlantic Rise. This elevation is a sort of bulge off the ocean floor, which is caused by immense pressure in the mantle pushing up through the crust. The Mid-Atlantic Rise is thought to have formed during the Triassic period, dating back to about 200 million years ago. The central valley of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge experiences a lot of earthquakes as well, which is probably also due to the instability in the mantle. Because of the continual seismic and volcanic activity the ocean floor here is slowly but consistently spreading along the ridge at a rate of 2.5 centimetres (one inch) per year.





Da Vinci's ornithopter



Welcome to... HISTORY

To many, he is the inventor of all inventors, but how did Da Vinci's ornithopter work in principle? We also discover why star-shaped fortifications prevailed for centuries, before looking at the main events and figures of one of Europe's bloodiest conflicts ever, the Battle of Agincourt.



74 Mustard gas



75 Star forts



76 Agincourt

72 Da Vinci's ornithopter

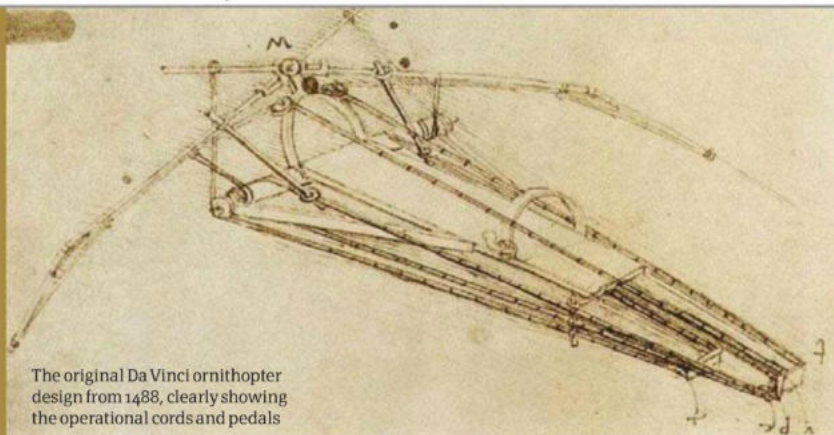
74 Treadwheel cranes

74 Riding spurs

74 Mustard gas

75 Star forts

76 Battle of Agincourt



The original Da Vinci ornithopter design from 1488, clearly showing the operational cords and pedals

Wings

The machine's wings were made from cloth and feathers to keep them very light.

Flotation device

If the machine landed in water, this – in theory – would prevent it from sinking.

Da Vinci's flying machine

Discover the operation of one of Da Vinci's most famous aviation designs, the ornithopter



LEARN MORE



This image is a 3D interpretation of Leonardo Da Vinci's flying machine, the ornithopter. Da Vinci designed the contraption in 1488 after studying the flight mechanics of birds. Indeed, in many regards the flying apparatus shares a lot of common features to the expert fliers, including a flexing, compound flapping motion as well as lightweight, feathered wings.

The flying machine operates as follows. A pilot lies down on top of the central wooden plank, hooking their neck and head through the semi-circle hoop and legs through the rear fastener. Once in position, the pilot can operate all parts of the machine with either their hands or feet. Foot operation entails

pushing on two pedals situated at the rear of the aircraft – one opening the wings and the other closing them. The pilot's hands, meanwhile, can grip the frame and ensure smooth running of the cording, which is responsible for controlling the wings' multiple wooden struts.

Surprisingly, Da Vinci never built the machine for himself in the 15th century, nor did he proceed to test it – maybe due to the financial challenge such a project would entail, or the large potential for injury. In addition, while many enthusiasts have created direct replicas of the ornithopter from the original schematics, no one has attempted to fly them, despite the mechanisms having been confirmed as fully functional. ⚙️

5 TOP FACTS FAILED FLIGHTS

Pigeon

1 According to Ancient Roman sources, the Greek mathematician Archytas invented a bird-shaped flying device which he nicknamed 'the pigeon'. It is alleged to have flown for 200m (656ft).

Vulture man

2 In the 9th century CE, Muslim inventor Abbas Ibn Firnas reportedly covered his body with vulture feathers and tried to fly. No account survives of his success, however.

The flying monk

3 In 1010 English monk Eilmer of Malmesbury is believed to have jumped off Malmesbury Abbey in a primitive gliding craft. Reports say he flew 180m (591ft) before crashing.

Airship

4 In 1709 Portuguese priest Bartolomeu de Gusmão demonstrated a small airship model before the Portuguese court, but he never succeeded in scaling the model up.

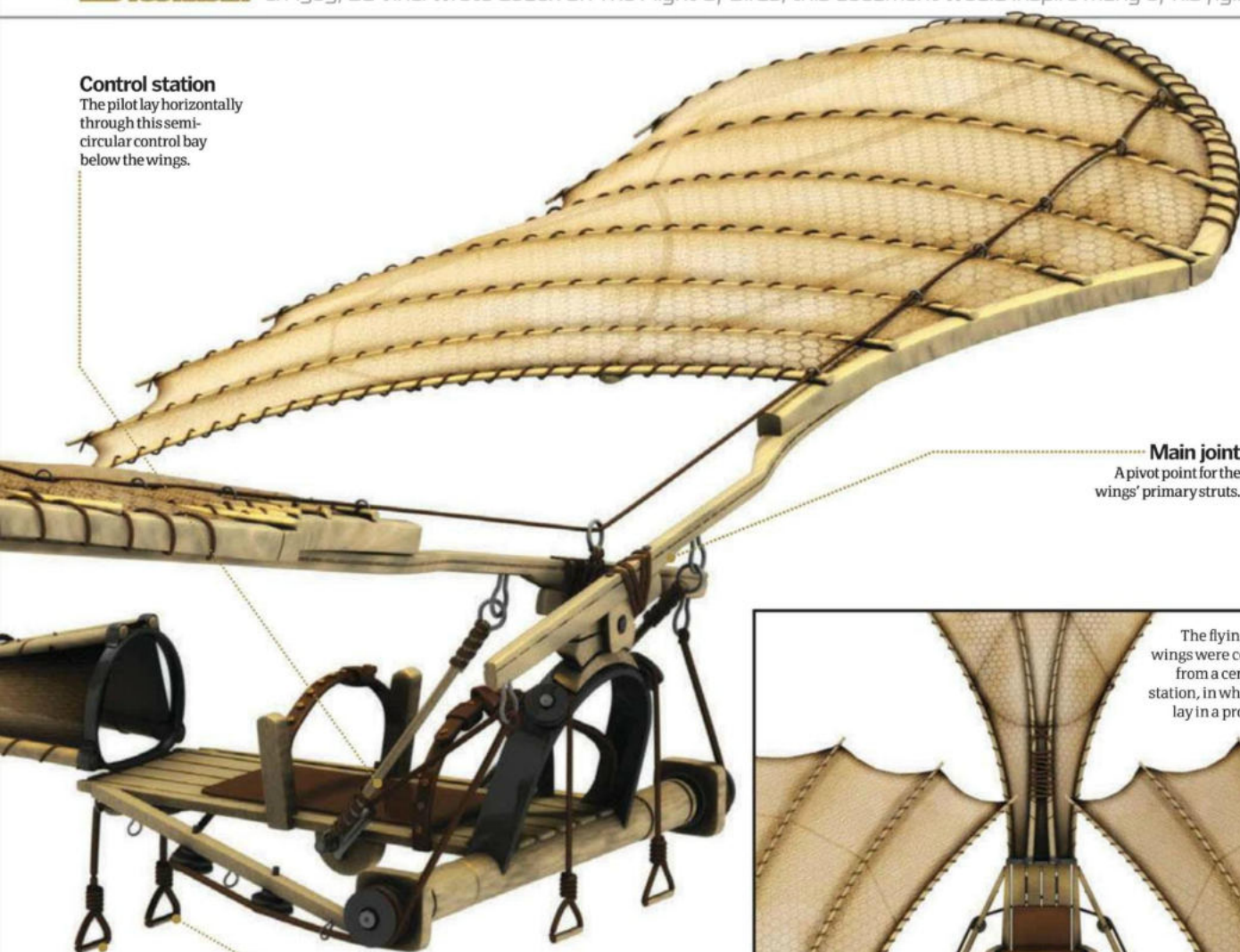
Tandem

5 In 1754 Mikhail Lomonosov showed a tandem rotor aircraft to the Russian Academy of Sciences. Similar to one of Da Vinci's designs, it was self-powered by a spring.

DID YOU KNOW? In 1505, Da Vinci wrote *Codex On The Flight Of Birds*; this document would inspire many of his flying machines

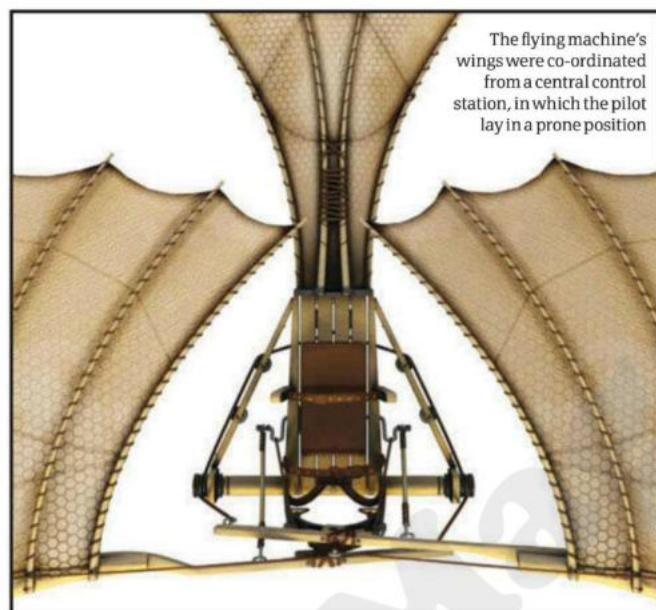
Control station

The pilot lay horizontally through this semi-circular control bay below the wings.



Main joint

A pivot point for the wings' primary struts.



The flying machine's wings were co-ordinated from a central control station, in which the pilot lay in a prone position

Release pedal

The release pedal opened the wings in a six-step sweep. Like the main pedal, it was controlled by one of the pilot's feet.

Main pedal

The main pedal closed the wings in a six-step sweep. It was foot operated.

Who was Da Vinci?

An irrepressible inventor, Da Vinci created many machines and gadgets still in use today

Leonardo Da Vinci was an Italian Renaissance polymath (a learned person of many talents). He successfully conceived and built a wide number of tools, mechanisms and machines, many of which are still used in some form to this day. Examples include the machine gun, armoured car, bicycle, mechanical saw, dredger, file-cutter, excavating crane, mechanical drum and odometer.

In addition, he drew out numerous fantastical designs for more ambitious inventions that unfortunately never got adopted, one of which was the flying machine examined here. Other examples include a mechanical dragonfly, a self-propelled cart and a skull-shaped lyre. Da Vinci was born near Vinci, Italy, in 1452 and died near Amboise, France, in 1519, aged 67.



"Surprisingly, Da Vinci never built the machine for himself in the 15th century, nor did he test it"



"These cranes were used in construction and industry for lifting all manner of materials"

What was mustard gas?

How did this chemical weapon wreak such devastation?



Mustard gas, a nickname for a variety of sulphur mustard agents, was a class of related cytotoxic (ie toxic to cells) chemical weapons used primarily in World War I and World War II.

The agents worked by preventing cellular division within the victim, leading to programmed cell death, DNA damage and, in some cases – where the victim survived the immediate effects – cancer in the long term.

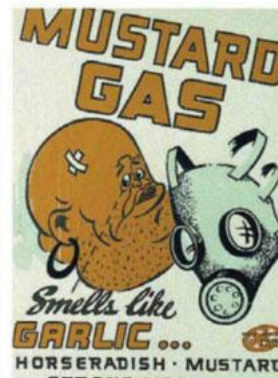
In addition to the direct life-threatening capabilities of the gas, it was also a major irritant to the skin, eyes and respiratory system, leading to large yellow-fluid-filled blisters and chemical burns. Further, the gas had strong mutagenic effects on those it came into contact with, often resulting in severe disfigurement.

The gas was typically delivered onto a battlefield via artillery shells or, particularly in WWII, aerial bombs.

Today, the use, production and sale of mustard gas is strictly prohibited and, as such, it is not used in modern conflicts, with existing weapons either strategically destroyed or stockpiled within secure facilities.



A WWI soldier suffering from mustard gas burns



Pallets of stockpiled artillery shells filled with distilled sulphur mustard agent. Inset: A US warning poster from WWII

How riding spurs work

Why are these an essential part of any horse rider's kit?



Spurs are small metal tools that are attached to a rider's boots. They're used across most equestrian disciplines today and, historically, were used by the vast majority of military orders. Spurs are designed to grant horse riders the ability to transmit subtle commands to their horse via pressure and strokes of a metal shank or rowel (see image below). Riders initiate spur commands by flexing their heel upwards and inwards slightly, pressing the metal element against the horse's body. The motion and intensity of this pressure directly translates to a certain (taught) command, though the majority indicate changes in speed or direction.

Rowel

A small spiked metal wheel that is affixed to the shank. It grants extra levels of fine control.

Yoke

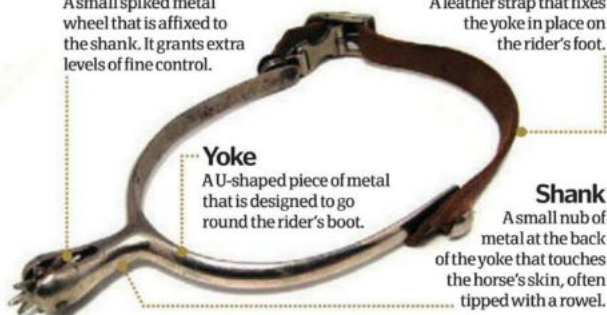
A U-shaped piece of metal that is designed to go round the rider's boot.

Strap

A leather strap that fixes the yoke in place on the rider's foot.

Shank

A small nub of metal at the back of the yoke that touches the horse's skin, often tipped with a rowel.



Treadwheel cranes explained

Styled like colossal human hamster wheels, these cranes allowed huge loads to be hoisted with ease



The treadwheel crane was a wooden, human-powered lifting and lowering device invented in Ancient Rome. It was used in construction and industry for lifting all manner of materials and produce.

Its creation was a revelation at the time, granting a single person the ability to lift roughly 3,000 kilograms (6,600 pounds) of weight, rather than a completely manual 50 kilograms (110 pounds). As such, while it could take 50 workers to haul a 2.5-ton block of stone during the construction of Egypt's pyramids, by using a treadwheel crane, the equivalent load could be lifted in Roman construction projects by just three.

Key to this was the huge mechanical advantage granted by the large-diameter treadwheel; it acted as a force amplifier, with the low force input of the treadwheel workers increased dramatically at the output end. A typical system placed two peddlers side by side in a large, tracked wooden wheel, itself turning around a central shaft. As the wheel was set in motion by the pacing of the workers, it would rotate the central shaft, which in turn would draw in or let out a connected pulley. The pulley

extended out along the crane's lifting bar and then down to the floor, where objects could be either loaded or unloaded.

Despite its fairly crude design, the treadwheel crane remained in widespread use right up to the end of the 18th century.



A double treadwheel crane from Bruges, Belgium

1. OLD

**Motte-and-bailey castles**

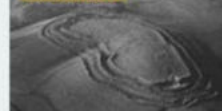
The motte-and-bailey was a castle built on top of a natural or man-made mound. The walls and keep were usually made of stone.

2. OLDER

**Citadel**

A citadel was a structure attached to a large town or city, either within its outer walls or part of them. Citadels provided a base for the city's soldiers.

3. OLDEST

**Hill fort**

One of the earliest defensive man-made structures, hill forts were large earthworks consisting of a series of earthen walls and ditches built around a small settlement.

DID YOU KNOW? Star forts were used by Michelangelo in the defensive fortifications of Florence, Italy, in the 16th century

The science of star forts

Why are these spectacular fortifications shaped this way?



Star forts are a type of fortification that remained popular from the mid-15th century right up until the end of the 19th and they evolved for two main reasons.

First, they aimed to counteract the game-changing effects of gunpowder during sieges, with traditional square and ring-shaped forts now easily breached by cannon fire. Second, star forts also mitigated a key defensive weakness traditional forts had become increasingly vulnerable to – ‘sapping’, or mining under the walls, by foes out of the firing line.

Star forts countered – to a degree – the effects of cannon fire by removing most perpendicular targets for the attacking force. The design was chosen as cannon balls made short work of square-on fortifications largely due to their extensive surface area and lack of absorptive support when a shot made contact. This was because medieval castle and fort walls, which accounted for a large proportion of existing strongholds, had been designed to be relatively thin but high, making it hard for enemies to scale them and difficult for siege engines to fire over. The advent of cannon fire, however, allowed these

walls to be hit directly and with a ferocity that would easily demolish the stone and clay.

As such, this new form of fortification was built out of a series of interlocking and/or separate triangular bastions, which encircled the central town or keep within. The bastions were much thicker than standard walls and much flatter too, meaning that any cannon shot hitting them straight on would have its kinetic energy spread out and absorbed by successive layers of masonry. Further, any shot that was not a direct hit, or completely perpendicular, would glance off with little damaging effect.

The second reason why the star-shaped fort became widely adopted was that while it limited effective angles of attack for the offensive enemy force, it maximised those of the defensive one. This was due, simply, to the geometry of their bastions. By creating a series of triangular spits that could be manned by gunners, attacking forces could be engaged over a far greater angle – over 180 degrees – and, more importantly, those forces that did reach the walls, could be continuously fired on from the side and rear. These advantages were generally not granted by

existing strongholds, as their flat-on walls meant infantry could only fire in a small arc in one direction – ie perpendicular to the wall. If forces did manage to reach the base, they could not be effectively engaged either as shooting straight down is very awkward.

Despite originating in the mid-15th century in Italy, by the 18th century star forts were a common sight in France, Germany, Croatia, Hungary and many other western nations (later spreading as far east as Japan). Many are acclaimed in historical record as key turning points in major battles. Indeed, the reign of the star fort only came to an end with the arrival of explosive shells towards the latter end of the 19th century. 🌟

A top-down view of Fort Bourtau, a star fort in Groningen, Netherlands



“While star forts limited effective angles of attack for the offensive enemy force, they maximised those of the defensive one”

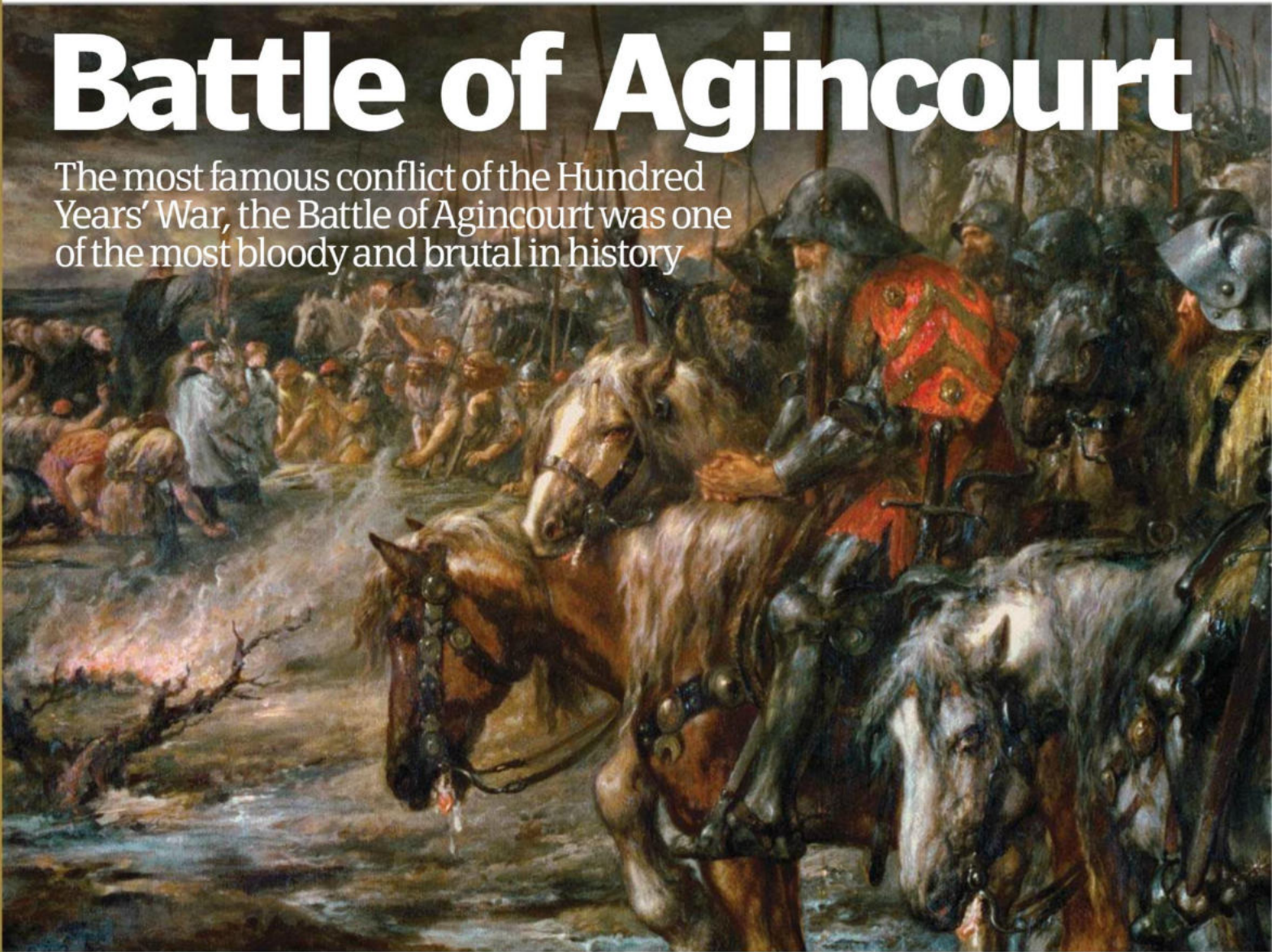
Fort Goryokaku, a rare surviving star fort in Hakodate, Japan





Battle of Agincourt

The most famous conflict of the Hundred Years' War, the Battle of Agincourt was one of the most bloody and brutal in history



The Battle of Agincourt is one of Europe's most famous battles, echoing down the centuries in historical record, song and even dramatic re-enactment on stage and film. The battle itself was part of the Hundred Years' War, a series of conflicts that actually waged for over a century (1337-1453) between the Kingdoms of England and France for control of the French throne.

The two contenders for the throne were the House of Valois, a noble French family from the Capetian dynasty that had claimed the throne under Salic Law, and the House of Plantagenet's Angevin family, who contested the claim due to the ancestral marriage of Edward II of

England to Isabella of France. These contested claims led to a number of brutal battles throughout the 14th and 15th centuries, which came to a head in the Battle of Agincourt, a horrific battle fought between King Henry V and King Charles VI on 25 October 1415.

The battle itself was a major English victory against a numerically superior French army – see 'Agincourt battle map' for a comprehensive rundown – that rested on a series of tactical mistakes by the French, commanded by Constable Charles d'Albret, and a series of tactical masterstrokes by King Henry V. Indeed, Agincourt has gone down in French history as one of their most disastrous defeats, with around 8,000 French troops killed and hundreds of others wounded or taken

prisoner. In contrast, the English losses were in the low hundreds.

Interestingly, however, despite the conflict being such an obvious and celebrated English victory, the battle is remembered today more for its vivid representation of the polarised views and consequences that war in general generates (for William Shakespeare's take on this, see 'The turning of the tide' boxout over the page). There are a number of reasons why opinions about it are so divided.

The first is due to the sheer magnitude of the casualties and the way in which they died. Records indicate men were decapitated, cleaved in two, had their bones shattered, were trampled to death, suffocated and had their major organs

shredded by arrows. The battle was, without doubt, one of the bloodiest meat-grinders ever witnessed.

The second, and arguably more poignant reason, is despite Henry winning the day at Agincourt and later being named regent and heir to the French throne – a goal he had chased all his adult life – he died before he could be crowned and his successors proceeded to quickly lose both the throne and much of the territory in mainland France that he had won through his campaign.

Lastly, despite Henry's actions being accepted as justified at the time by both French and English chroniclers, his actions were heavily criticised both morally and ethically in later times. Arguments not only

5 STOP FACTS

BATTLE OF AGINCOURT

Victory songs

1 After the English victory at Agincourt, several celebratory songs were written. The most famous of these is *The Agincourt Carol*.

V

2 The derogatory 'V' sign of modern culture stems from Agincourt. The gesture was used by English archers in defiance of the French threat that any caught longbowmen would have their two bow-fingers cut off.

Outnumbered

3 One of the most contested issues today is exactly how badly the French outnumbered the English forces. Conservative figures lie around 4:3, while other estimates place it at 4:1 or even 6:1.

Welsh allies

4 The English forces at Agincourt were not just from England but Wales too. Indeed, one of the most notable generals, Dafydd Gam, died in the battle after reportedly saving Henry's life.

The waiting game

5 Despite Henry's resounding victory, he was not officially recognised as regent and heir to the French throne until 1420, five years after the conflict.

DID YOU KNOW? Actor Kenneth Branagh played Henry V in the 1989 film adaptation of Shakespeare's play



Agincourt today. Despite almost 600 years having passed since the famous battle, the terrain is still ploughed fields, a factor that greatly contributed to the English victory



The English frontline amasses on the morning of 25 October 1415, the day of the Battle of Agincourt

contested his right to invade, but also his decision to execute all but a handful of the French prisoners taken at the battle, which while numbers are unclear, probably approached, or even exceeded, a thousand men. Indeed, the French losses at Agincourt largely obliterated their aristocracy, with hundreds of noblemen (including three dukes, eight counts and one viscount), knights and even an archbishop killed in the fighting.

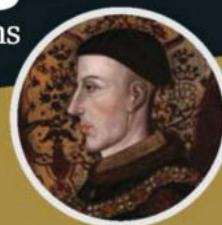
In this feature *How It Works* breaks down the main events of the battle itself, analyses the surrounding context, highlights the key players and explores the ramifications that Agincourt had on the economic, social and political spheres of Europe in the Late Middle Ages and beyond.

A clash of kings

How It Works pits the warring monarchs of France and England head-to-head



King Charles VI



King Henry V

46

Age (at Agincourt)

29

1368

Born

1386

House of Valois

Lineage

House of Lancaster

4

Children

1

Catholic

Religion

Catholic

1380-1422

Reign

1413-1422

Charles V

Predecessor

Henry IV

1422 in Paris

Death

1422 in Bois de Vincennes

Background: Nicknamed both Charles the Beloved and Charles the Mad, King Charles VI ruled France for 42 years despite frequently succumbing to bouts of mental illness (see 'The mad king' boxout on page 79). He was the son of King Charles V and Joan of Bourbon. His reign was characterised by ceding territory to foreign powers and the creation of power struggles within the French aristocracy.

Background: The last of the great warrior kings of the Middle Ages, King Henry V ruled England for nine years and in that time managed to expand its empire significantly. His reign was characterised by military conquest and solid political and financial support from the English parliament and the country's barons. However, his reign did leave England in poor shape financially.



"Henry receives a blow to the head that removes part of his crown"

AGINCOURT BATTLE MAP

How It Works charts the main events, tactics and terrain of this famous conflict

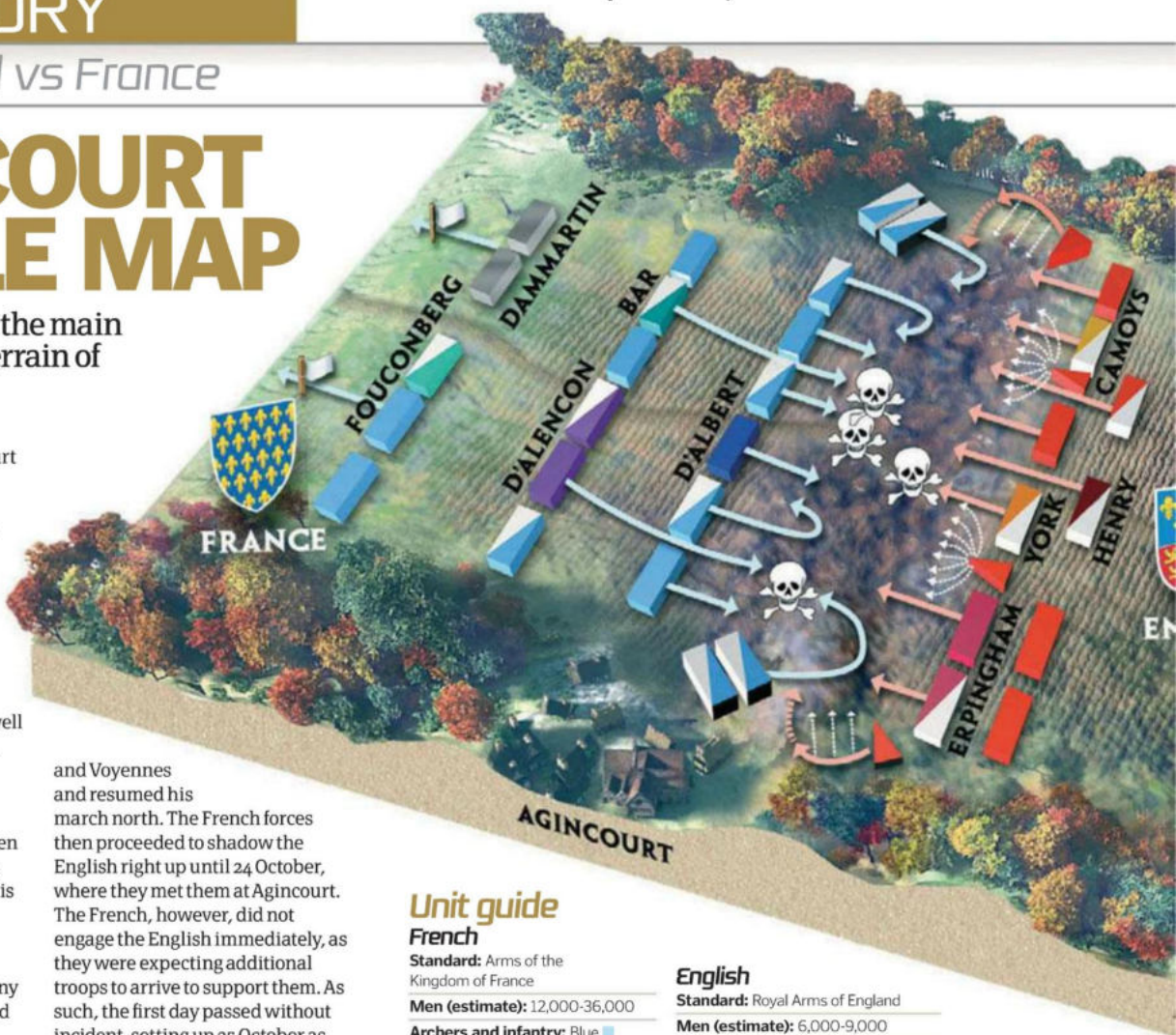
Contextually, the two sides approached the Battle of Agincourt from completely different directions – both literally and metaphorically. Henry had been campaigning in France since 13 August 1415, which had seen him besiege and take the port city of Harfleur and cover hundreds of miles through Normandy. As a result, the English forces were tired from fighting and marching, as well as suffering from food shortages, and disease was rife.

In contrast, the French had assembled a large army during Henry's taking of Harfleur at Rouen and then moved to block Henry's crossing of the River Somme on his march north to the English stronghold of Calais. The French forces were much fresher, substantial in number – with many nobles and soldiers alike amassed – and better equipped. All these factors led them to believe, quite understandably, that if a battle did happen, they would win decisively.

After being initially prevented from crossing the River Somme, Henry finally managed to cross it south of Péronne at Béthencourt

and Voyennes and resumed his march north. The French forces then proceeded to shadow the English right up until 24 October, where they met them at Agincourt. The French, however, did not engage the English immediately, as they were expecting additional troops to arrive to support them. As such, the first day passed without incident, setting up 25 October as one of the most famous days in European military history.

For a blow-by-blow account of the battle, read through our chronological guide of the main events, which can be followed directly on the battle map.



Unit guide

French

Standard: Arms of the Kingdom of France

Men (estimate): 12,000-36,000

Archers and infantry: Blue

Cavalry: Blue and white

Constable Charles d'Albret:

Dark blue

Duke of Alençon: Purple

Duke of Bar: Turquoise

Count Fauconberg: Cyan

Count Dammartin: Silver

English

Standard: Royal Arms of England

Men (estimate): 6,000-9,000

Archers: Red triangle

Infantry: Pink

Cavalry: Red and white

King Henry V: Maroon

Duke of York: Orange

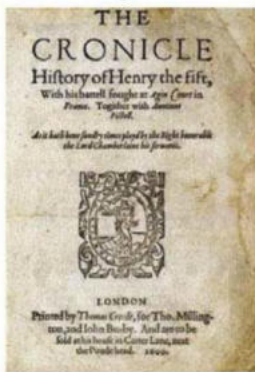
Sir Thomas Erpingham: Green

Baron Thomas de Camoys: Yellow

The turning of the tide

Shakespeare's dramatic re-enactment of the Battle of Agincourt in Henry V sends out some mixed messages

William Shakespeare's play *Henry V* (c. 1599) is interesting in its ambiguously polarised views on the battle, Henry himself, and war in general. On one hand, Shakespeare appears to praise military conquest and justify Henry's campaign – most notably in his famous St Crispin's Day speech, where Henry rallies his men. On the other hand, the play doesn't shy away from detailing the horrors of war and even closes with a reminder that, while Henry's victory won him the French throne, in the long term his son lost it and the battle was, historically, largely inconsequential.



Step-by-step event guide

How did Henry V lead the English to victory?

1 Henry advances towards the French frontline, ordering his archers to uproot their defensive spear wall and replace it farther up the battlefield. This catches the French forces off-guard and they fail to charge before the spear wall is reinstated. English longbowmen in the central frontline begin bombarding the French with arrows.

2 While the French frontline try to quickly organise themselves for a

frontal charge, Henry orders his flanking squads of longbowmen to move up the battlefield within the trees to the right and left, advancing to a point where they can fire from either flank into the centre of the French troops. Like the frontline archers, they set up spear walls.

3 Constable D'Albret orders the French frontline to charge at the English frontline. They are met by multiple waves of arrows, which decimate large

BLOODLESS BATTLE

Despite Shakespeare's play *Henry V* revolving entirely around the Battle of Agincourt, the stage production actually features no depiction of combat whatsoever, focusing instead on events before and after the fighting.



DID YOU KNOW? As well as being famed for his military prowess, Henry V was also considered a shrewd political diplomat

Where it went wrong for the French

Drawing on the lessons of military history, we weigh up where Charles d'Albret's strategy foundered, and how the French might have won the battle



Key to Henry's victory was his good use of tactical positioning and Constable D'Albret's poor use of it. Indeed, with D'Albret's bigger and fresher force, he arguably should have won the battle if he had made a few key adjustments.

First, if D'Albret had engaged Henry's forces on a more open terrain, he would have been able to better utilise his large selection of cavalry, which during the skirmish could not outflank the English forces and so were forced to charge head-on.

Second, D'Albret totally underestimated the damage that could be inflicted by the English longbowmen, who were the best archers in the world at the time. As such, French cavalry and infantry alike were continuously

bombarded from the front and sides by Henry's well-placed units, severely decimating their troops before they even reached the English frontline. Once again, a more open terrain could have avoided this.

Third, and last, D'Albret's forces – notably the French army's noble knights – were outfitted in heavy armour. While such gear provided a greater degree of protection in hand-to-hand combat, it severely limited their movement and agility, something that would become fatal on the busy, muddy central battlefield. Indeed, reports indicate that the battlefield became so cramped and sodden that when knights were knocked down they struggled to even stand back up again, let alone efficiently engage the lighter-armoured, and so more agile, English troops.

point the two side flanks of English archers abandon their ranged weapons and rush into the French second line from both the right and left.

7 The Duke of York is killed by a blow to the body and proceeds to get lost amid the sea of fighting soldiers. In addition, Henry's brother – Humphrey, the Duke of Gloucester – is wounded by a blow to the groin. Henry quickly moves to his position and defends him with his personal retinue – he succeeds but in the process receives a blow to the head that removes part of his crown.

8 The Duke of Bar is killed as his forces get depleted by the encircling English. Upon seeing the disaster that is unfolding before his eyes, the Duke of Alençon attempts to reach the English to submit a surrender notice, however he is killed by a blow to the head before it can be delivered.

9 The third line of French forces hovers on the outskirts of the battle, unsure whether to fight or not. Henry perceives they will and, due to the large number of unrestrained French prisoners from the first and second waves, orders all but the most high-ranking to be executed to prevent them from rearming en masse and overrunning the exhausted English.

10 Upon seeing the vast losses and executions, the French third line, led by the Counts Fauconberg and Dammartin, retreat to the rear, fleeing the battlefield. Henry wins the battle and orders a count of the dead, which reveals roughly 8,000 French troops had died compared to the English's 450.

numbers of their cavalry and infantry as they cover the central battlefield. The English archers on each flank also begin firing, hitting the French frontline from both sides.

4 D'Albret and limited numbers of the French frontline reach the English spear wall and begin to engage them in hand-to-hand combat, pushing it backwards. The longbowmen retreat and Henry orders his infantry to advance and meet the French.

5 Fierce, close-quarters fighting begins upon the sodden, muddy ploughed terrain at the centre of the battlefield. The combination of the dense mud and heavy armour worn by the French knights leads to thousands of them getting severely bogged down and exhausted, with the lighter-armoured English forces able to operate much more effectively.

6 D'Albret is suddenly killed in the melee, falling into the mud. Meanwhile, the French second line advances into the centre of the battlefield congesting it further. At this

The mad king

King Charles VI wasn't at Agincourt as his court considered him unstable, but was he?

Charles VI's reign was blighted by an apparent mental illness, which manifested itself in a series of conditions ranging from him believing he was made of glass to outright paranoia and violent episodes. One of the most notable of these episodes was during a march to Brittany from Paris to punish what Charles VI perceived to be a would-be assassin. After being warned by a passing leper that he should turn back as he was betrayed, he reportedly suddenly shouted, "Forward against the traitors! They wish to deliver me to the enemy!" and proceeded to hack down and kill several of his personal bodyguards (see picture below). After finally being dragged from his horse, Charles fell into a coma. As such, and especially towards the end of his reign, he was largely confined to his residence in Paris and – as a direct consequence – did not lead his forces at the Battle of Agincourt.





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When a bulldozer is working, its blade is in a constant state of motion, pushing, pulling, and carrying loads. For example, high-drive bulldozers deliver equal amounts of stability and grip no matter whether they are pushing, pulling or carrying their colossal loads. The last key part is the bulldozer's ripper. This is a tool attached to the rear of the vehicle that's powered by a hydraulic cylinder. The ripper usually resembles a toothed blade—or series of toothed blades—and is used to break up hard ground so it can be scooped up or pushed by the blade. Rippers are designed with replaceable tungsten steel alloy tips to ensure they remain razor sharp. In addition, rippers can be modified to perform other tasks. A case in point are stump-puller rippers, which are sharp, horizontally mounted rear blades used specifically to split and shred tree stumps. Due to their extreme power and performance, bulldozers have increasingly been called into military service, if greatly adapted for war zones. Modifications include armor plating, blast shields, bulletproof cab glass, machine guns and enhanced communication systems with GPS. A good example is the Caterpillar D9L (nicknamed Doodle—Hebrew for 'teddy bear'), which has been used by the Israel Defense Forces (IDF) for several decades. ©



Push frame
A long, thin structure between the bulldozer's frame and blade. It ensures the blade remains rigidly fixed during operation.

Tracks
A linked array of metal plates that runs over a series of wheels. The top bar ensures the bulldozer generates maximum traction for pushing/pulling.

036 | How It Works

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BRAIN DUMP

Because enquiring minds want to know...

MEET THE EXPERTS

Who's answering your questions this month?

Luis Villazon



Luis has a degree in Zoology from Oxford University and another in Real-time Computing. He's been writing about science and tech for years. His sci-fi novel *A Jar Of Wasps* is published by Anarchy Books.

Shanna Freeman



Science expert Shanna Freeman has a refreshingly broad range of expertise, which includes

writing on such varied topics as space travel, nuclear power generation and how cheese is made.

Rik Sargent



Rik is an outreach officer at the Institute of Physics where he works on a variety of projects aimed at

bringing physics into the public realm. His favourite part of the job is travelling to outdoor events and demonstrating 'physics busking'.

Mike Anderiesz



Long-time *How It Works* contributor and seasoned technology and computing journalist

Mike has 15 years' experience of explaining the ins and outs of all the latest gadgets, hardware and home entertainment products.

Aneel Bhangu



Aneel is a training academic surgeon working in London. His research interests include advanced

cancers and medical statistics, with his clinical interests including planned surgery for rectal cancers and emergency surgery for trauma.



Ask your questions

Send us your queries using one of the methods opposite and we'll get them answered



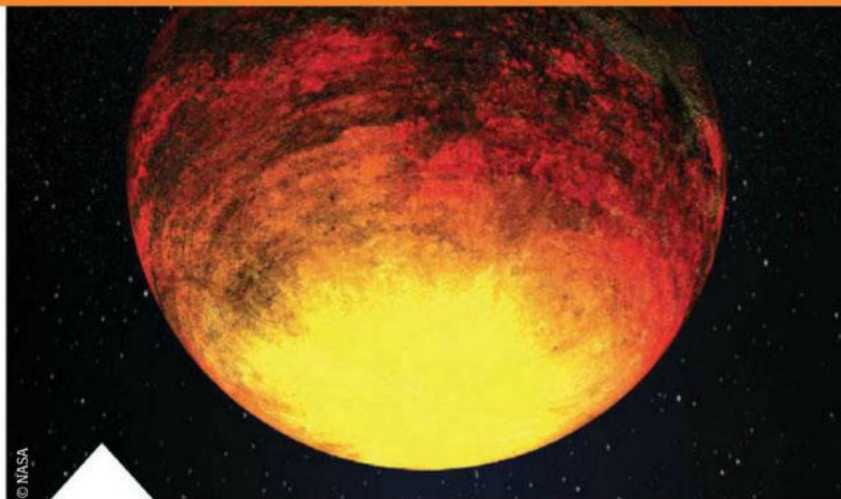
Is there a limit to quantum computing?

Jamie McDonald

Today's computers process data as bits, which can exist either as a 0 or a 1. Hard-disk drives store these bits as microscopic patches of magnetism on magnetic plates, where the information can then be converted to electrical signals. Quantum computing, meanwhile, manipulates data at an atomic level, allowing for a whole host of interesting quantum mechanical effects. Bits in quantum computing are known as qubits and are particles such as electrons or atoms. The advantages of qubits are that they are very small and can exist in more states than just two. These states could take the form

of the spin of an electron or the configuration of an atom, and because there is a higher number of states per qubit than an ordinary bit, the number of possible combinations of states between different qubits increases massively. This essentially means that quantum computers would be able to solve immense calculations at unfathomable speeds, compared with traditional machines. However these particles are very difficult to manipulate so quantum computing is currently limited in what it can do, but as for the future, it's impossible to predict how far this technology could go.

Rik Sargent



If the Earth was once molten, where did all the water come from?

James Blanchard

■ The Earth is the only planet in our Solar System with huge amounts of water that has mostly remained in the same liquid state ever since it first formed. The latest theory explains that, after the world formed – but before it had developed an atmosphere – a variety of gases were released from the interior. This 'degassing' process lasted for about 100 million years, after which time enough gases (including carbon dioxide, methane and ammonia)

existed to form the atmosphere, as well as the vast oceans which cover so much of our planet today (70 per cent). Gravity held the gases to the surface, and the temperature lowered below the boiling point so the gases could condense into water. Other possible contributors include water-rich meteorites and comets colliding with the Earth's atmosphere, and the photosynthetic processes of bacteria that existed early in the planet's life.

Shanna Freeman



If you've got something to shout about, don't forget to take a deep breath first...

How do we control the volume of our voices?

Stacey John

■ The human voice is produced by air from the lungs moving over the vocal cords in the larynx. The cartilaginous larynx is situated in the throat, below the tongue and above the lungs. The vocal cords themselves are formed from a combination of muscle and cartilage. As they contract and relax, the space between them increases or decreases, which in turn changes the tone and pitch of the voice. However it is the force and speed of air passing over them which dictates the volume of our voices, and this air originates from the lungs. So when you want to speak loudly, you take a deep breath in to fill your lungs before expelling the air rapidly and forcefully over the vocal cords.

Aneel Bhangu



The 2m (6.6ft)-tall genyornis is believed to have been driven extinct by human hunting and habitat destruction

© Nobu Tamura

Which was the first species made extinct by humans?

Billy Rowlett

■ We don't know for certain but it was probably one of the giant mammal species of the late-Pleistocene epoch (60,000-12,000 years ago). Recent studies of the two-ton wombat diprotodon and the two-metre (6.6-foot)-tall flightless bird genyornis, for example, indicate that they became extinct from Australia soon after humans arrived. These animals would either have been hunted directly or driven extinct by environmental destruction as early humans lit brush fires to flush out other prey and clear land for settlement.

Luis Villazon

When will videogames look like real life?

Jonathan James

■ In some respects, the CG animations used in videogame cut-scenes can already look uncannily realistic. However, the human eye works differently to a monitor, and the brain very differently to a computer, so the way we perceive realism and the way we re-create it are hard to compare. For starters, our eyes and retinas are curved. So although we can easily calculate, say, the screen resolution of a videogame in dots per inch (dpi), that assumes viewing it on a flat screen of a fixed size at a fixed distance. However, human vision works in arcs – an object's sharpness and clarity appearing minutely different depending on how close it is. Today's videogames and monitors can comfortably handle resolutions of up to 1,920 x 1,080 dpi, but the human eye is capable of seeing much more subtle detail. Videogames are also viewed on a single screen whereas we see the world with two eyes that cover much wider peripheral vision. Even when playing a 3D game on several linked 3D monitors, it's a long way from being as convincing as the real thing.

Mike Anderiesz



L.A. Noire featured the most realistic facial animation ever seen in a videogame

© Rockstar Games

What is déjà vu? Find out on page 85

BRAIN DUMP

Because enquiring minds want to know...

Can gold ever be vaporised?

Find out on page 86

Want answers?

Send us your questions using one of the methods opposite and we'll get them answered



Can you do a loop-the-loop in a passenger jet?

Dave Porter

■ To perform a 360-degree loop, an aircraft needs to achieve three phases in quick succession: the entry, the climb and the exit. Each of these would cause particular problems to anything the size and weight of even a small commercial jet. Entry has to be undertaken at top speed to carry the plane through vertical ascent, making optimum fuel load a tricky calculation.

At this velocity, the climb would put massive strain on the wings and tail – enough to tear them from the fuselage. Finally, the jet's weight would be too great and flight controls too weak to pull out of the loop without causing vibrations that could rip the aircraft apart. Needless to say, nobody has found a pilot brave enough (or airline dumb enough) to try it.

Mike Anderiesz



A fossilised skeleton of megalania in Melbourne Museum

What's the biggest lizard ever to live?

Robert Ansil

■ If you were tempted to think 'some kind of dinosaur', then think again – dinosaurs were similar to reptiles but weren't lizards. The answer is *varanus priscus*, or megalania, a terrestrial lizard native to Australia that became extinct over 40,000 years ago. Although most experts agree megalania was the biggest ever, opinion is divided on just how big it was, with estimates varying between 4.5-7 metres (14.7-23 feet). This is because no complete skeletons have been found, although fossil fragments do suggest megalania was heavily built with a mouthful of sharp, serrated teeth. The world's largest living lizard is a distant relative of megalania, the Komodo dragon, which is a kind of monitor lizard.

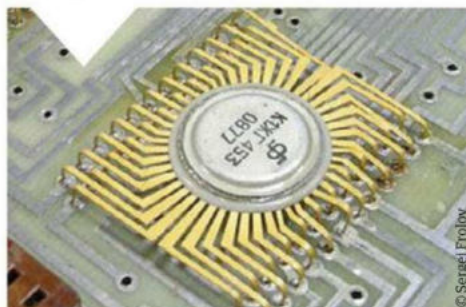
Mike Anderiesz

Why are microchips made of silicon?

Diana Easton

■ Most microchips are currently made from silicon due to its effective semi-conducting properties. A semiconductor is something which conducts electricity, but only partially. Semiconductors are the foundation of most electronic devices as they allow the building of gates and switches in a circuit. Pure silicon is actually an insulator, and becomes a semiconductor through a process known as doping. Doping involves introducing small amounts of impurities, giving rise to free electrons or 'holes' that electrons want to move into. Silicon has been so widely used in microchips as it is easy to extract from sand in large quantities, and gets the job done. However current research suggests that materials such as carbon graphene are able to outperform silicon, and could represent the future of consumer electronics.

Rik Sargent



Why is reheating rice bad for you?

Sarah Phillips

■ It's all in how you cooked and handled the rice. Rice naturally contains the spores of a bacterium called *bacillus cereus*. If you cook rice correctly, then store in a calibrated refrigerator within two hours, you have nothing to fear. The problem comes when cooked rice is kept at an unsafe temperature for a long period of time as this allows the spores to breed. No amount of reheating after that can kill them, and eating the rice can cause diarrhoea and vomiting. Any food cooked and stored improperly can make you sick, but many people don't know rice is a potential culprit.

Shanna Freeman

How do you fix a dislocated limb?

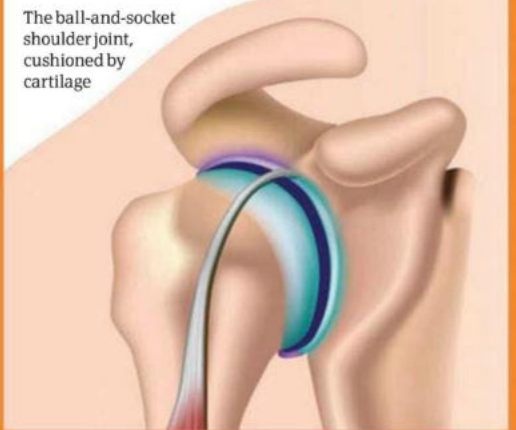
Jake Westcott

■ Joints are vital to allow movement and function to an otherwise rigid skeletal frame. The more free the movement, the less stable the joint. For example, both the hip and shoulder are ball-and-socket joints. Since the hip has a deeper socket, it is more stable but this comes at the cost of restricted movement. The shoulder has a shallower joint and allows more freedom of movement, but is less stable.

When a joint dislocates (such as after a fall or a sports injury), contact between the surfaces of the bones forming that joint is lost. Shoulders, fingers, toes and elbows are commonly dislocated, with knees, ankles and vertebrae less frequently. The bones must be put back in place; after some sedation, they are manipulated until they move back into the right position. Sometimes, an operation is needed, but in some cases, nothing is needed at all (such as for dislocations of the clavicle, or collarbone).

Aneel Bhangu

The ball-and-socket shoulder joint, cushioned by cartilage



What is déjà vu?

Carmen Jones

■ If you've seen the blockbuster film *The Matrix* then you'll know that déjà vu is a glitch. In all seriousness though, déjà vu is a phenomenon in which you feel as if you're seeing or experiencing something that has already happened. It's French for 'already seen', and as many as 70 per cent of people have had déjà vu experiences. But what causes it? There are several different theories. Some neurologists suggest the brain mistakenly processes a short-term memory (the memory you're in the process of making) as a long-term memory, making something that's new seem familiar. Another possibility is if you've learned or seen something similar, and although you've forgotten it, some aspect was stored in your consciousness, so when you have the new experience, your brain tries to match up the two. People suffering from temporal lobe epilepsy may experience déjà vu due to short-circuiting, while a number of drugs can also evoke the feeling.

Shanna Freeman

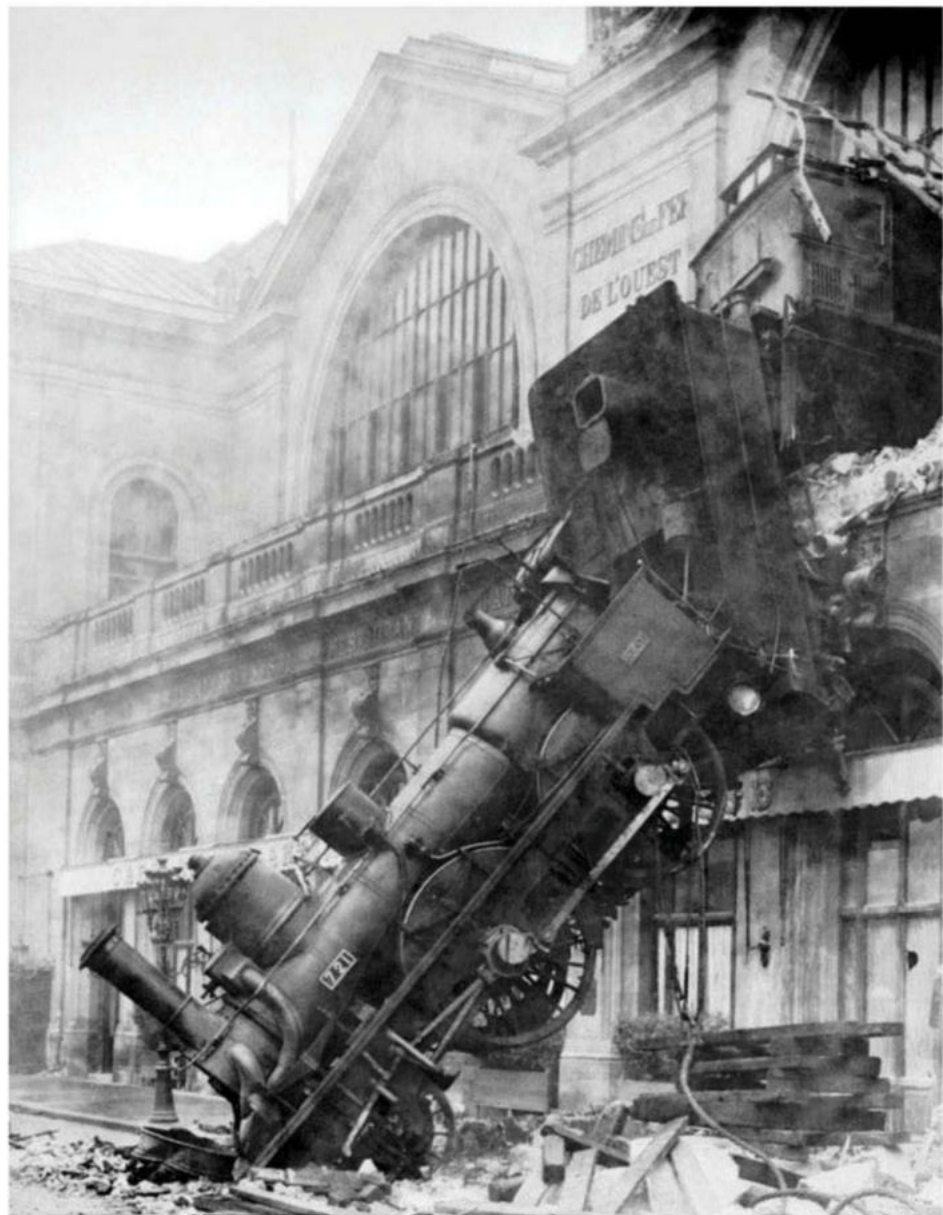
What caused the train wreck at Montparnasse in 1895?

Ryan Davies

■ This incredible photo of the wreck at Gare Montparnasse in Paris shows a very dramatic scene of a train that has crashed through the wall and partially tumbled to the street. The cause? Both mechanical failure and human error. The train was late, so the driver had it pull into the station at a high speed. It had two different types of braking systems: handbrakes and an air brake known as a Westinghouse brake. The conductor realised that

the train was going too fast and applied the Westinghouse brake, however it didn't work. He then waited too long to use the handbrakes, which weren't sufficient due to the weight and speed of the train. The locomotive crashed through a wall and the first few cars fell towards the street below. Amazingly, only a few passengers and train employees were injured, though one pedestrian on the road below was killed.

Shanna Freeman



What's the closest we've got to the Earth's core? Find out on page 87

BRAIN DUMP

Because enquiring minds want to know...



What does it mean when we are 'winded'?

Caroline Ferguson

■ A sharp blow to the abdomen can cause a spasm of the diaphragm. The diaphragm is a dome-shaped muscle that separates the abdominal cavity from the thorax. It is the key muscle in the respiration system. When it flattens, the pressure in the lungs reduces

and air flows in. When in spasm (like a cramp, triggered by a sudden knock), it makes it hard to breathe for a few moments; this is the sensation of feeling winded. This will relieve itself rapidly if the person keeps calm and lets the spasm run its course.

Aneel Bhangu

What caused the Tunguska impact back in 1908?

Andy Hartshorn

■ The Tunguska explosion was caused by an object several tens of metres across that detonated in an airburst five to ten kilometres (3.1-6.2 miles) above Tunguska, Siberia, in 1908. Scientific opinion is divided as to whether the object was a meteoroid or a comet fragment. The former would have been a rocky mixture of iron ore and silicon oxides; the latter would have been mainly ice. The explosion was 1,000 times more powerful than the Hiroshima bomb so virtually all of the object was vaporised in the atmosphere.

Luis Villazon



Trees flattened by the Tunguska explosion in Siberia

Is diamond the hardest material?

Find out on page 87

Want answers?

Send us your questions using one of the methods opposite and we'll get them answered

Gold melts at 1,064°C (1,948°F), so it still has a fair way to go until it becomes airborne...



Can gold become a gas?

Colin Alderman

■ Any element can become a gas; you just need to heat it past its boiling point. For gold, that's 2,856 degrees Celsius (5,173 degrees Fahrenheit), which is hotter than the temperature in an arc furnace so it's difficult to just boil a bar of gold. But you can create small amounts of gold gas by bombarding it with a high-energy

beam of electrons in a vacuum. This knocks atoms of gold free from the solid mass and they'll fly around and coat anything in the vacuum chamber. Electron beam vapour deposition is used to create very thin gold coatings for the electronics, medical and space industries. Gold coatings can also be used as a lubricant in machinery.

Luis Villazon

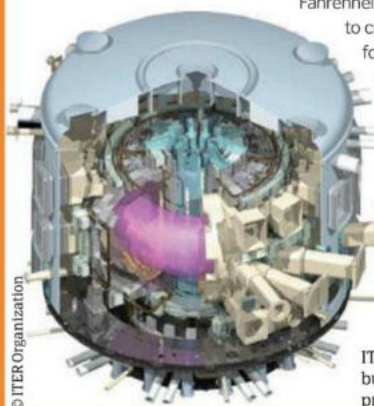
Can fusion reactors break down anything into atoms?

Nick Saunders

■ Nuclear fusion powers the Sun and it happens when hydrogen nuclei fuse together to make helium nuclei. Extremely high pressures and temperatures (around the 10-million-degree-Celsius/18-million-degree-Fahrenheit mark) inside the Sun allow fusion to occur. On Earth the temperature inside a fusion reactor has to be much higher - around 100 million degrees Celsius (180 million degrees

Fahrenheit) - to compensate for our inability to create similar pressures to those found in our Solar System's star. In such extreme conditions, hydrogen and helium exist as plasma - where all the electrons are stripped of atoms and can move freely. Anything else present inside a fusion reactor would therefore break down into its elemental parts as a result of this subatomic deconstruction.

Rik Sargent



ITER is a global initiative aiming to build a 'tokamak' fusion reactor to produce a long-term energy source



Where does the fat go when we lose weight?

Puja Kumaravelu

■ Fat is essential to our bodies. It stores energy, insulates us and protects us from impacts. The majority of fat is stored as subcutaneous adipose, which is the layer beneath your skin. Some is also stored in your liver and muscles. Men and women have different fat distributions with women storing most around the breasts and hips, and men around the abdomen.

Fatty acids are the basic building blocks of lipids – the small fat molecules that are transported through the blood and have many functions. Most people have a predetermined number of fat cells, which doesn't change much. As fatty acids are absorbed into the body, they are transported in the bloodstream as chylomicrons. The liver is the master controller of synthesis, storage and breakdown of fatty acids.

When glucose levels are low and more energy is needed, the stored fatty acids in fat cells are broken down into glycerol and fatty acids, which are free to circulate and then be absorbed by cells in need; this process is called lipolysis. The fat cells then shrink. So these adipose cells don't really 'go' anywhere – they merely expand or shrink depending on the nutritional status and energy demands of the body at a given moment.

Aneel Bhangu

Why do bees die after they sting us?



Jessie Joyce

■ Most bees and wasps don't. The standard stinger design is smooth for puncturing the skin of other insects and it can be easily withdrawn and reused. But the honeybee, uniquely, has evolved a strongly barbed stinger as a defence against vertebrates. The bee doesn't just push the stinger into you – the barbs on either side of the central stylus act as ratchets that move back and forth to pull the stylus ever deeper. The elastic layers of your skin trap the barbs so when you brush the bee off, the stinger tears free, along with the venom gland and part of the digestive tract. The bee dies from this huge rupture, but the muscles in the stinger continue to work, pumping venom into the wound. The abdominal juices also act as a pheromone signal to other bees to join the attack. This suicide strategy results in a much more painful sting and is the best way to protect the hive. Unlike workers, queen honeybees have smooth stingers for multiple attacks.

Luis Villazon

Is there anything harder than diamond?

Sam Smith

■ In physics, hardness is a measure of how resistant solid matter is to various kinds of permanent shape change, when a force is applied. Hardness can be measured on the Mohs scale where diamond is ranked as the hardest natural material. Diamond is made from carbon atoms joined by extremely strong covalent bonds. There are harder synthesised materials though; for instance, aggregated diamond nanorods, or ADNRs, are made by subjecting carbon-60 molecules to immense pressures.

Rik Sargent



What's the deepest hole we've ever dug?

Neil Swift

■ The record for subsurface drilling is held by the Kola Superdeep Borehole in NW Russia. The scientific project reached 12,262 metres (40,230 feet) in 1989 before 180-degree Celsius (356-degree Fahrenheit) temperatures forced it to stop. The trouble with drilling to Earth's core is not just the tough rock, crystal and eventually molten metal you'll encounter, but the rapidly increasing pressure, friction and heat. At around 1.5 million metres (4.9 million feet), temperatures would exceed 300 degrees Celsius (572 degrees Fahrenheit) – more than any drill-bit can cope with. Even then, we would still be over 4,500 kilometres (2,800 miles) from the inner core.

Mike Anderiesz



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Vivid Colour Mood Light

Price: £24.95/\$N/A

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Mood lighting is hugely underestimated: particularly for countries that are subjected to gloomy conditions for so many months of the year, we seem remarkably content with a standard living room light bulb. While the Vivid Colour Mood Light won't illuminate a room by itself, it will give a subtle ambience, especially to white walls. Hit the arrow and slide your finger along the colour strip to move through the spectrum of tones. It's lightweight and portable, charges from USB in an hour or so, and will provide up to two and a half hours of light per charge.

HOW IT WORKS

A LIGHTER MOOD

It's long been recognised that light has a significant effect on mood: sunlight in particular helps increase serotonin production, which elevates both your mood and energy levels.

Everything You Need To Know About The Universe

Price: £14.99/\$19.95

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When Stephen Hawking wrote his seminal *A Brief History Of Time* he was told that for every equation he included, he would halve the number of sales. Maybe author Christopher Cooper has taken that advice into account for his space tome, because this book about the universe, 'from the Big Bang to the Big Crunch, in a nutshell', dedicates two pages per topic, compiling succinct explanations with simple watercolour illustrations before moving on to the next subject. It might not help you with your astrophysics degree, but nevertheless it's a very palatable bathroom read for space fans.

HOW IT WORKS

SOLAR STATS

The Sun accounts for 99.9 per cent of the total mass of our Solar System; 90 per cent of what's left is made up by Jupiter and Saturn.

Look Closer Ocean

HOW IT WORKS

MARINE MARVEL

Some coral reefs began growing more than 50 million years ago and they are some of the richest habitats on Earth.

Look Closer Ocean

Price: £6.99/\$10.99

Get it from: www.dk.com

Coral reefs, the frozen poles, from the sunny surface of the tropics to the midnight depths of the oceanic trenches, *Look Closer Ocean* takes young readers on an intrepid journey through the world's sealife. It's image-led and driven by pithy factual boxouts and annotations, though a little lacking in text for older primary school children. However it's an interesting read and probably a good source of reference material for a first school project.

GoBook Folding Smart Case

Price: £9.99/\$12.99

Get it from: www.ergoelectronics.com

You've just bought a GoBook so you're going to want a case for it, at the very least to make it more attractive to a child. Beyond aesthetics though, the GoBook Folding Smart Case will protect the screen from knocks that could potentially damage it. Not that the GoBook screen isn't designed to endure a degree of bumps and sticky fingers, but you know what kids are like.

APPS OF THE MONTH

Brought to you by **Apps Magazine**, your essential guide to the best iPhone and iPad apps available on the Apple App Store



iPad: Figure

Price: £0.69/\$0.99
Developer: Propellerhead
Software AB
Version: 1.0 **Size:** 9.5MB **Rated:** 4+

The first time you use Figure there is no doubt you will be stunned by the polished audio you can produce, and that's all down to the clever balance between complete freedom to create what you want, and a constant stabilising factor that keeps the audio listenable. It feels like it has taken inspiration from a spaceship dashboard, yet retains a hipster element that you associate with some of the trendier photo-sharing apps. It may not have the depth that professionals would be looking for, but Figure is a huge leap forward for synth apps.

Verdict: ★★★★★

iPhone: Zombies, Run!

Price: £5.49/\$7.99
Developer: Six to Start
Version: 1.3 **Size:** 270MB
Rated: 12+



One of the most ingenious apps we've encountered for some time, Zombies, Run! gives any cardio workout an edge by putting you in the middle of a zombie apocalypse. The session kicks off when the undead start to chase you. Functioning in the same way as interval training you'll have to leg it away from danger as fast as you can or risk having your brain eaten!

Verdict: ★★★★★



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HOW IT WORKS
EDITOR'S CHOICE AWARD ★★★★★

HOW IT WORKS

UP IN ARMS
The chipset behind the GoBook is the Boxchip E200, a form of ARM processor. The first ARM processors date back to 1983 and they have been used in 90 per cent of portable devices since.

GoBook Imagine

Price: £74.99/\$129.99

Get it from: www.ergoelectronics.com

With Kindle dominating the eReader market and Apple pretty much sucking up what's left, it's got to be hard to find a niche, but the GoBook might have one: it's an eReader designed for children. At a hardware level it's fleshed out with a 20.3-centimetre (eight-inch), 800 x 600px touchscreen, 4GB of internal storage, expandable to 16GB with the microSD slot, an internal speaker with a 3.5-millimetre (0.14-inch) audio port and miniUSB for file transfer or charging. Its bespoke OS supports 720p AVI and MP4 files, standard music file formats and photos, plus (of course) eBooks via Adobe Reader Mobile or any digital book store. The model we reviewed has no Wi-Fi access, which, on the plus side, allows you to maintain a greater level of control over what your child is reading. The grey chassis isn't likely to excite most kids and it takes a bit of wrestling with the operating system to set the GoBook up. But as a bigger, more child-friendly alternative to the standard Kindle, it's an attractive competitor.

Easy Pull Corkscrew Set

Price: £12.95/\$N/A

Get it from: www.gadgets.co.uk

Given the choice between a railgun, a bearproof armoured suit and the Easy Pull Corkscrew Set, we went for the latter. And we stand by our decision, because even if it's nowhere near as exciting as military technologies, nothing will get a bottle of wine open quicker than this. Few things will do the job with as much style either.

HOW IT WORKS

LEVERAGE

Rather than using a twisting motion from the weaker muscles in your wrist, the Easy Pull mechanism leverages the relative power of your upper arm.

HOW IT WORKS

FIRST TABLET

The invention of tablet computing is often attributed to Apple, but Roger Fidler has video proof of a sales pitch for his tablet newspaper device, which he conceived back in 1994.

GROUP TEST

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www.littlegreenrobot.co.uk



HOW IT WORKS
EDITOR'S CHOICE AWARD
 ★★★★★

PROS
 ✓ Excellent camera
CONS
 ✗ Slightly bigger than its rivals

PROS
 ✓ Comparatively low price
CONS
 ✗ Disappointing camera, no SD

PROS
 ✓ Slim and super-powerful
CONS
 ✗ Difficult to unlock

Android smartphones

Three of the latest devices battle it out

Samsung Galaxy S III

Price: £499.99/\$699.99

Get it from: www.samsung.com

Running just behind the HTC One X on raw CPU power is Samsung's latest offering, the Galaxy S III. Its quad-core is a 1.4GHz beast and it's been furnished with other similarly competitive specs: up to 64GB of storage (microSD-expandable to 128GB), a sharp 720 x 1,280 display that puts its predecessors to shame and, of course, an Android 4.0 OS. The Galaxy S III is a slim and tactile smartphone, but also a nose ahead in looks, rivalling the iPhone for its svelte white lines (it's also available in black, in case there was any reason you wanted to play down the fact that you're holding a valuable bit of kit).

The eight-megapixel camera is an ace up its sleeve, snapping photos and taking 1080p videos whose quality approaches the best of compact equivalents. The camera interface is easy to use, it has a distinctly more powerful flash than the iPhone and, despite comparable optics, still seems to take sharper and more colourful pictures. There's nothing that really makes the S III stand out from the competition but, overall, it does have a slight edge.

Verdict: ★★★★★

HTC One X

Price: £459.99/\$729.99

Get it from: www.htc.com

Are you looking for bragging rights? Well, how about this: the HTC One X has a 1.5GHz quad-core processor, at least if you live outside the US and certain other countries (otherwise it's a 1.5GHz dual-core). It's the first smartphone to feature this whopper of a multitasking CPU, backed up by a gigabyte of RAM and 32GB of storage. Its base architecture alone knocks its rivals out of the race, but HTC hasn't forged itself a reputation as a leader of Android smartphones based on a handful of geeky statistics alone. The Android 4.0-powered One X houses an eight-megapixel camera that is a worthy replacement for a standard digital compact. It captures full-HD video that, thanks to the blistering quad-core, is stutter-free and you can even take a photo while recording without dropping a single frame.

It's really simple to use too. The HTC One X is a high-end mobile device that can be as complicated as technophiles want it to be, but if you're late getting on the Android smartphone bandwagon, then you won't have any problems feeling your way around this One.

Verdict: ★★★★★

Sony Xperia S

Price: £369/\$549.99

Get it from: www.sonymobile.com

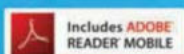
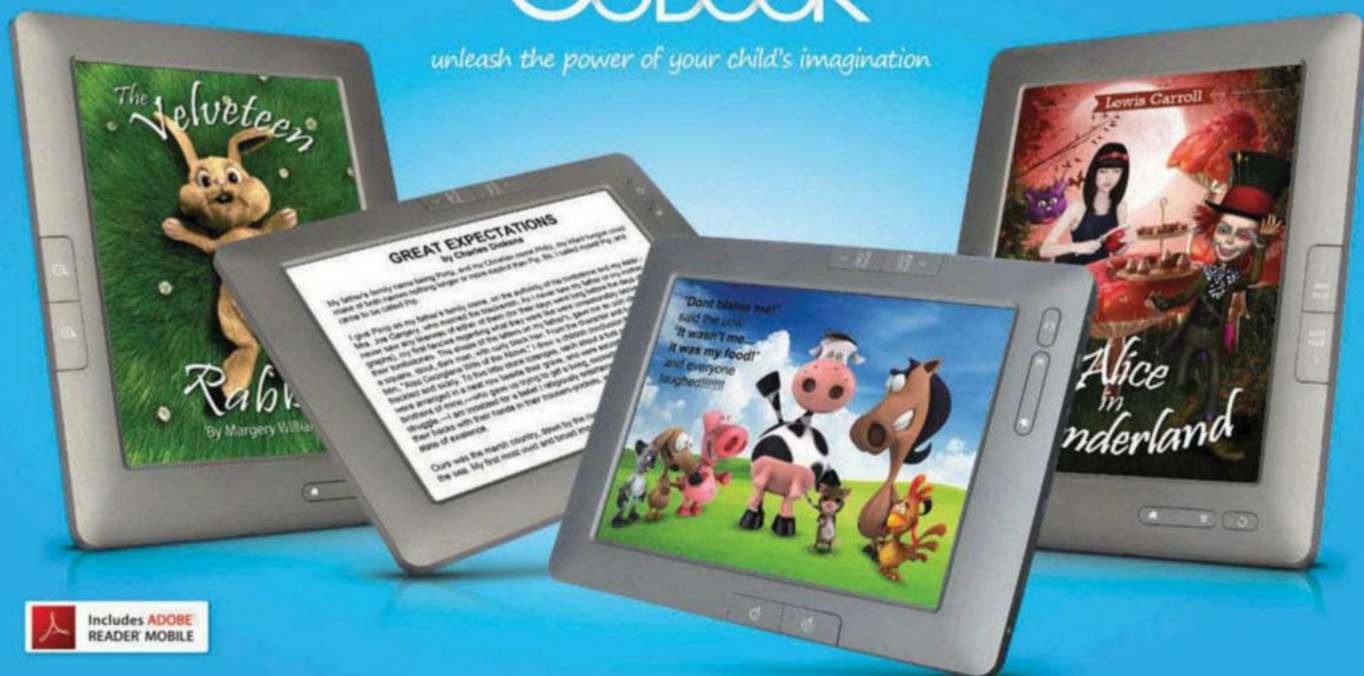
Rather than go head to head in the quad-core battle, Sony has opted for a 1.5GHz dual-core CPU in the Xperia S. With this ARM processor technology more readily available, it's meant that not only has Sony been able to get the Xperia S to market quicker, but also at a much more attractive price. For around £100 (\$200) less than its competitors, the Xperia S offers a 1,280 x 720 TFT screen, Google Android 2.3 (Gingerbread) and a 12.1-megapixel camera with autofocus and a 16x digital zoom. On paper, the camera makes for a tasty selling point, but while it might be able to capture a higher-resolution shot than, say, the Galaxy S III, it doesn't cope well with low light and the pictures it snaps aren't nearly of the same quality, even if it is superfast.

We're not sure we're fussed with the way the Xperia S looks either: it's comparatively small and light, but the strange transparent bezel at the bottom and its boxy shape do nothing for it. Critically, it's missing a card slot too, so though casual users might get on with it, those who really like to explore their Android phones may want to pass here.

Verdict: ★★★★★

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MAKE A SLINGSHOT

Relive your childhood by creating your own slingshot with some everyday items



1 Collecting
To start we need a small Y-shaped branch. Ideally, it should be thicker at the base than at its forks. Importantly, it needs to be small enough to hold in one hand, yet at the same time quite strong. Dead tree branches are not ideal, as they snap easily.

2 Prepping
Once you've found your branch you need to prep it for its future role as the body of your slingshot. This process will entail you stripping it of any small outlying twigs and leaves and then cutting it down to size – when doing this, try to keep the sling forks in proportion to the handle. Finally, for comfort, you can sand or file down the bark so the handle has a smooth finish.

3 Tubing
Okay, now it's time to prep the sling's elastic action. For best results latex tubing should be used, however a few large elastic bands can also offer decent results. Take the tubing and trim it down to size. Two 30-centimetre (11.8-inch) lengths should be adequate; if they look too long, don't worry, as we will need a bit extra to attach the tubing to both the forks and add the leather strap.

4 Wiring
Next we need to attach the tubing to the forks. Take a knife and carefully score two notches on each fork about five centimetres (two inches) from the tips. The notches should be slight and go 360 degrees around the forks; if they are too deep they may cause the wood to snap when in use. Now take the tubing and wrap an end around each notch and fasten them in place – on the pull-back side – with string. Ensure the tubing is securely attached to both forks before proceeding.

5 Strapping
Finally, we need to create a leather strap for the sling – the seat for the projectile. This is best done with a leather strip, which can either be bought from a craft shop or worked up from an old belt; if you do use a belt that has the added bonus of already having holes punctured in it, which can be used to attach the tubing. If you have just a leather strip, however, simply puncture two small holes roughly 2.5 centimetres (one inch) from either end with a knife and then thread the tubing through before affixing as per step 4.

BUILD A FIRE

With modern lighters and matches starting a wood fire isn't difficult, but building one so that it burns steadily is an art form

1. TINDER

To begin we need to gather or create some tinder – that's small dry pieces of material whose job it is to catch the initial flame to generate a fire. Strips of paper, moss, pine needles, grass and dry bark are all ideal tinder material, each easily setting alight and quickly generating a small flame. If no natural tinder is accessible, you can make some wood shavings by carefully stripping down a larger log with a sharp knife.



2. KINDLING

Now we need to collect kindling, by which we mean small dry twigs, sticks and branches. Kindling is important as it will act as a 'middleman' between the tinder and the real fuel of the fire: the wooden logs. Importantly though, kindling with a large surface-to-volume ratio should be used rather than any old material, as this way it can properly fulfil its function of generating an even fire quickly and for the length of time necessary to ignite the denser logs.

3. CUTTING

As with the kindling, the fire's logs should be prepared prior to being dumped on the fire. First, only dry logs should be used, as damp ones will draw excess heat out of the fire and take far longer to set alight. Second, logs of uniform diameter should be used, again to ensure an even burn. Third, if at all possible, logs should be split lengthways with an axe to expose the clean inner wood to the flame, rather than the bark-covered exterior. Finally, get at least double the number of logs you think you'll need; you always need more.

4. CLEARING

Before we actually construct the fire proper, it is good practice to prepare its base and surrounding area. First, clear the ground of any dead leaves or debris and create a circular ring of rocks roughly a metre (four feet) in diameter. You can then create a bed of stones across the area for the fire to sit on – stones are excellent as a base as they retain heat well. Digging a small pit for the fire to sit in will also help protect it from wind and creates natural heat walls. Alternatively, simply start building on the flat ground if it's dry.



Building your own fire in the wild can be fun, but always ensure you put it out completely once you've finished



**NEXT
ISSUE**

Drive a tank
Build the perfect
sandcastle



5. STACKING

Finally it's time to construct the fire. Start with the tinder by placing it in a small central mound at the heart of the circle. Then take your kindling and create a small pyramid with it on top of the tinder, ensuring that small gaps remain throughout to ensure a good supply of oxygen can reach the centre. Ideally, the base of the kindling should be nestled within the outer layer of the tinder, an inch or two in from its outer boundary. At this stage you can now light the tinder. Then once the tinder has passed its flame on to the kindling, stack logs in a lattice around the central pyramid.

Disclaimer: Neither Imagine Publishing nor its employees can accept liability for any adverse effects experienced when carrying out these projects. Always take care when handling potentially hazardous equipment or when working with electronics and follow the manufacturer's instructions.

WHISTLE WITH YOUR FINGERS

Fed up with not being able to whistle? Well, try this method and become a pro



1 Perfect A

For this to work first we need to create an A-shape with our middle and index fingers. Extend these four fingers and bring your hands together so the two middle fingers' tips touch. At the same time hold down your ring and little fingers with your thumbs.

2 Wet your whistle

Okay now we need to prepare our mouth. To do this wet your lips and then draw them over your teeth. It's important that both your upper and lower lips totally cover your teeth. Don't worry about pressing your lips down too hard as your fingers will help with this.

3 Tongue-tied

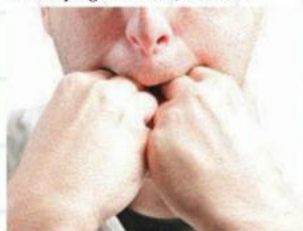
This is the hardest part. You now need to pin your tongue back with the A-shaped finger arrangement. To do this, make your A-shape and then place your joined fingers under the tip of your tongue. Next, gently push the tip back slightly until your knuckles reach your bottom lip. Don't worry if you struggle to pin your unruly tongue down – just reposition your fingers until comfy.

4 Seal

With your tongue in place, it's now time to create a seal around your fingers, leaving just a small central hole through which the air can escape.

5 Final whistle

If all instructions have been followed, you should be able to gently blow and generate a whistle. In all likelihood this will not happen immediately, as the positioning of your fingers, tongue and lips needs to be just right and the technique can differ. If you are having no luck, try experimenting with the position of your tongue and remember you should only feel air blowing out through the centre of your mouth across your bottom lip. If you feel air escaping elsewhere, start over.



? TEST YOUR KNOWLEDGE

ENJOYED THIS ISSUE? WELL, WHY NOT TEST YOUR WELL-FED MIND WITH THIS QUICK QUIZ BASED ON THIS MONTH'S CONTENT?

1 What's the name of Richard Branson's deep-sea sub?

A:

2 Who invented and patented the process of rubber vulcanisation?

A:

3 What's the screen resolution of the Samsung Galaxy S III?

A:

4 How heavy is the Curiosity Mars rover in kilograms?

A:



5 Which of the big cats is the best climber?

A:



6 Who led the French army at the Battle of Agincourt?

A:

7 When did Leonardo da Vinci invent his ornithopter flying machine?

A:

8 What percentage of people worldwide are estimated to have some kind of phobia?

A:

9 How many prototypes of the bagless vacuum cleaner did James Dyson build?

A:

10 In what year was the pressurised inhaler first invented?

A:

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> ISSUE 35 ANSWERS

1. 45,500 tons 2. 120,000 vehicles 3. 180°C 4. 100m
5. Pad rats 6. 15mn°C 7. 2 8. The Black Forest 9. 2 10. 157m

Get in touch!

We enjoy reading your letters every month. So keep us entertained by sending in your questions for the mag, comments on what you like/don't like, or any science-related news you want to share.

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Letter of the Month

The Mars winch

Hi, How It Works, I have noticed a few articles on other life in the universe and how the planet needs to be in the habitable zone. If we have overpopulation problems on Earth, why don't we pull Mars into this zone? Because Earth is bigger than Mars and has a larger gravitational force, with all the technology nowadays, we could build a massive winch to pull Mars into the zone. Also, with global warming and all that CO₂, can't we just pipe it into space? I have one final idea before I stop boring you to death: if the ozone is made of O₃, why don't scientists just make more of that and fly it up to the atmosphere?

Owen England

Of course, a good scientist needs to be clever, but a great scientist needs to get creative. Those are some

extremely imaginative solutions to world problems, Owen, and even if they aren't necessarily achievable with our current technology, it's exactly the kind of thinking that we like here on How It Works!

The 'Mars winch' in particular got our brains going: if we were able to tie Mars and Earth together with cables and anchors, which were capable of taking the strain, Newton's third law states that for every action there must be an equal and opposite reaction - so by pulling Mars towards the Earth we'd also pull Earth towards Mars. For feeding our imaginations with your ideas, you've won the Letter of the Month prize - congratulations!

Win!
A WOWee One portable speaker

Weather or not

Hi. I enjoy reading How It Works and so does my grandson. Could you please explain what the jet stream is, how it forms and where it comes from? Why is it sometimes out of position - which affects our weather so much - and why does it travel west to east?

Keith

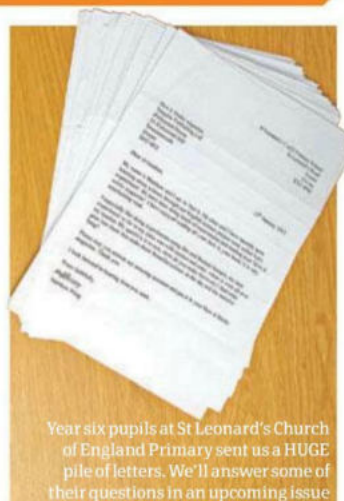
HIW: Earth, Jupiter and other planets all have jet streams. They're caused by the temperature and pressure differences of air masses meeting each other, resulting in strong prevailing winds. The northern jet stream is the one generally referred to by weather forecasters and its direction, as well as changes in its

usual seasonal course (such as the low latitude that it has taken over the UK this year), are dictated by a number of factors including the rotation of the Earth.

Hurt feelings

Just wanted to raise a couple of points from issue 34, Page 61 [in the 'How deserts work' feature] describes the Earth's makeup. The last paragraph notes that desert ecosystems are damaged by things like off-road vehicles, drilling and mining. Being a geophysicist in oil and gas exploration who drives a four-wheel drive, I felt a little hurt by that comment. Although it may be true, I think you need to be a little more 'fair' in your generalisations. By this I mean that the

top of the page contains a banner that says, 'Solar panels covering just 0.3 per cent of the Sahara would generate enough clean energy to power Europe'. Solar panels are not clean - they are in fact very 'oil-energy' intensive in their manufacture. And covering 0.3 per cent of the Sahara Desert would probably have more damaging effects to the ecosystems than all the four-wheel drives in the US driving around the Sahara each day (not that you were implying we actually put solar panels in the desert). I do think from an oil and gas industry perspective, we all should be a little more open-minded and not simply consider mining and drilling as bad and solar panels or hydro/wave energy as good. I am sure you get my point by now.



Year six pupils at St Leonard's Church of England Primary sent us a HUGE pile of letters. We'll answer some of their questions in an upcoming issue



Apart from that I am on my second year's subscription, and do enjoy the magazine very much. Keep up the good work. I do like the online videos and thank you for providing exposés on famous scientists like Sagan and Tesla as I had suggested in one of my previous emails that was published last year.

Paul, Perth, Western Australia

HIW: Point taken, Paul. While the extraction of fossil fuels and their use does have a negative impact on the environment that 'green' energy tends to avoid, there's an appropriate time and place to mine for coal, drill for oil, use solar panels and, of course, drive off-road vehicles.

Feline fan

I buy How It Works every month and each issue is so fantastic that my cat Wilson likes it too! We loved the article about '10 space myths' and can't wait to read about ice volcanoes and space jetpacks. Thanks for the knowledge.

Tasmin Bucknall

HIW: Hi, Tasmin, we knew we were reaching people with **How It Works**, but we didn't realise we were a hit with the feline community too. Perhaps it was our article about domestic cats in **HIW** issue 33 (page 64) that proved the hook for Wilson? Glad you're both enjoying the mag.

Our number one feline fan, Wilson, enjoying the atoms feature in **HIW** issue 34

Going for cold

Please can you answer this question: why do we shiver when it's cold? My goal is to go to the Olympics in 2020 and swim, however I get cold in the water and start to shiver, so would like to know why.

Rohan Penney, 10

Space speeding

Just a note about an article in issue 33, concerning the maximum speed an object can travel in space. This article was correct but not quite complete, as it might lead some readers to think that it would take a spacecraft travelling near the speed of light just over x years to go x light years. Well, yes – as measured by someone watching from Earth.

I suspect that the reader who asked you the question (Penny McWalters) really wanted to know how far she could travel through space in her lifetime. The answer is very surprising to those who don't know about time dilation – travelling with a constant 1g acceleration, it would only take 29 years on ship to travel to the Andromeda galaxy, which is just over 2 million light years away! Unfortunately, you'd also find that, when you got back home, the Earth was millions of years older, and that (almost) everything you ever knew was long gone... Now all we have to do is build the starship!

Dr Paul R Bowden, BSc BSc MSc PhD MInstP (lecturer in Computing at Nottingham Trent University)

What's happening on... Twitter?

We love to hear from **How It Works**' dedicated readers and followers, with all of your queries and comments about the magazine and what you'd like to see explained. Here we select a few of the most interesting tweets that we've received in the last month.

vjb1975

@HowItWorksmag

Your brain knows what your body is going to do six seconds before it does it. That's right creeped me out!

VirtuallyGeeky

@HowItWorksmag

Glad I never hit a solid wall at 200km/h [124mph] – insane 200km/h crash test!

StarryEyedTruth

@HowItWorksmag

Not had a chance to have a proper look @ issue 35, only managed a flick-through, but it looks the best yet! The cover is awesome

scott_gamer

@HowItWorksmag

Picked up the new issue this morning. The most fascinating bit for me is about how parrots are able to imitate human speech

BlueSilence

@HowItWorksmag

I enjoyed reading 'A-Z of the Ancient Greek Olympics' [issue 34] :) I really do like your illustrations and images that you pick each issue as well

TheHubbard

@HowItWorksmag

@HowItWorksmag New @HowItWorksmag arrived, still haven't managed to read the last few mags yet! #toomanyexams! And the new space mag advertised looks fab



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Web: www.imagine-publishing.co.uk
www.howitworksdaily.com
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Magazine team

Editor Helen Laidlaw
helen.laidlaw@imagine-publishing.co.uk
01202 586215

Editor in Chief Dave Harfield
Features Editor Robert Jones
Features Editor Ben Biggs
Art Editor Helen Harris
Senior Sub Editor Adam Millward
Head of Publishing Aaron Asadi
Head of Design Ross Andrews

Contributors

Mike Anderiesz, Aneel Bhangui, Sharna Freeman, Nicole Rager, Tom Harris, Rik Sargent, Adam Smith, Luis Villazon, Nigel Watson, Jonathan Wells

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Account Manager Liz Tucker

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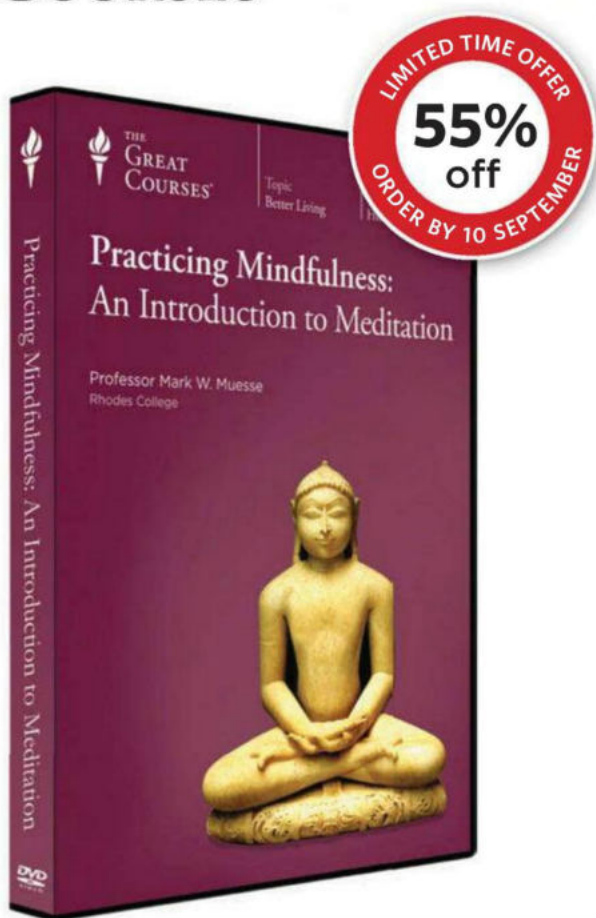
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